THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For APRIL, 1805.

ART. I. *Sir John Froissart's Chronicles of England, France, and the adjoining Countries*, from the latter Part of the Reign of Edward II., to the Coronation of Henry IV. Newly translated from the best French Editions, with Variations and Additions from many celebrated Manuscripts. By Thomas Johnes. Vol. I. 4to. pp. 835. and 14 Plates. 4l. 4s. Boards. Printed at the Hafod * Press. Sold by White, London.

THE host of modern compilers will never impart to the attentive reader so just an idea of the spirit and manners of the times, concerning which they treat, as is afforded by contemporary writers. Let any inquirer pore as long as he pleases over Pêre Daniel, Mezeray, Velly, Villaret, Henault, &c. yet he will be more a stranger to his subject than the person who has added, to a slight perusal of those annalists, a diligent study of such original authors as the Sire de Joinville, Froissart, Monstrelet, Philip de Comines, &c. In this reading age, when the taste for expensive works is so general, we cannot but regard attempts to translate or to elucidate antient national historians as highly meritorious, and deserving of encouragement. We, therefore, warmly applaud the creditable employment of leisure, of which, in the present instance, a gentleman of taste, opulence, and consideration has set the example. Mr. Johnes will, however, excuse us if we observe that the version of Berens, corrected, *deterso rudis seculi squalore*, and with such alterations as might be suggested by the collation of different editions and manuscripts which he has so laudably undertaken, would have been to us a more acceptable service, than the far more laborious task which he has here imposed on himself. This preference arises from no affected fondness for the mould of antiquity: but the dialect of the old translation bears closer affinity to that of the original, and its quaintness well becomes the simplicity of Froissart; the style of Berens is more that of the historian; and, if the garb be different, the *cut and make* bear strong resemblance. It is gratifying to know the narrator, such as he really was, and to have him introduced

* Hafod, the beautiful seat of Mr. Johnes in Cardiganshire, where he has established a private Printing-Press.

to us as much like himself as may be practicable; which is not only pleasing, but instructive to the observing mind. Yet we do not deny that the present inviting version will draw more attention to the old chronicler, and prove much more agreeable to the generality of readers, than an amended edition of the old translation in which the errors in proper names would have been rectified, and though enriched with the notes which add so considerably to the value of the publication before us.

In an advertisement, Mr. Johnes observes:

'Several Manuscripts in my own library have been collated with the printed copies, and the same thing has been done with those in the British Museum. A person is now employed at Breslau, in collating the celebrated manuscript there, which has been supposed to be the only one unmutilated. Should it prove so, the additions shall be printed at the end of the work. Many improved readings have been tacitly received, to avoid troubling the public with notes. Some chapters even are added, which are not in any of the printed editions.

'The engravings are traced from the finest illuminations in our own libraries and in that of France. By unforeseen accidents the plates are irregularly given, and they must not be bound up until the whole be completed.'

Considering the length of time during which Mr. Johnes has been employed on this work, it is to be regretted that he did not find a more early opportunity of having the so much vaunted Breslau MS. collated. It will be ascertained, however, whether it possesses the superiority which has been ascribed to it.

The version lately made by Mr. Johnes, of the memoirs of our old historian by Curne de St. Palaye, ought, we think, to have formed a part of this volume; at least it should have been published in a form adapted to bind up with it. In the notice which we took of that work *, we bestowed due commendation on the zeal, industry, and good faith of the historical patriarch; and we did not fail to recite his laudable ambition, his meritorious diligence, and his admirable ingenuousness, as the grounds of his title to the large share which he has enjoyed in the acknowlegements of posterity. Yet he is by no means one of those geniuses who rise above the age in which they live; and the low state of literature, the credulity, and the admiration of chivalry, which marked the time, are every where conspicuous in his pages. His chronicle is a collection of independent relations, rather than a connected history; and authenticity and extent of information constitute his chief merit. In regard to reflections on the events which he relates, he falls very short of Joinville, who long preceded him, and of

* See Rev. Vol. xli. N. S. p. 176.

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de Comines, who followed him at no great distance of time. The French charge him with a partiality to the British court and nation, which, if it exists at all, is discernible only in a very slight degree.

That Froissart was duly impressed with the importance of the province on which he was entering, and that he was endowed with that sensibility to public opinion and future fame, which should belong to every one who devotes himself to any branch of literature, will appear from his introduction, which is truly characteristic of the simplicity of the age:

'That the honourable enterprises, noble adventures, and deeds of arms, performed in the wars between England and France, may be properly related, and held in perpetual remembrance—to the end that brave men taking example from them may be encouraged in their well-doing, I sit down to record a history deserving great praise: but before I begin, I request of the Saviour of the world, who from nothing created all things, that he will have the goodness to inspire me with sense and sound understanding to persevere in such manner that all those who shall read may derive pleasure and instruction from my work, and that I may fall into their good graces.'

His supplication was certainly not dispersed in air, since he has always been a favourite, and has engaged more of public attention than any historian of the age in which he lived.

The succeeding passage places in a strong light the imperfect state of society at the period. We perceive the little formality that is observed when the reputation, fortune, and life of a statesman and a peer are in question: but, little as it was, we hold it to have been precious, for it was the property of its nature to increase; and the principle of being judged by equals is adopted.

'The queen then ordered sir Hugh Spencer the elder and the earl of Arundel to be brought before her eldest son, and the barons assembled, and said to them, that she and her son would see that law and justice should be done unto them according to their deeds. Sir Hugh replied, 'Ah! madam, God grant us an upright judge and a just sentence; and that if we cannot have it in this world, we may find it in another!' Then rose up sir Thomas Wager, a good knight, wise and courteous, and marshal of the army: he read, from a paper in his hand, the charges against them, and then addressed himself to an old knight, seated on his right hand, to decide the punishment due to persons guilty of such crimes. This knight consulted with the other barons and knights, and reported it as their opinion, that they deserved death for the many horrible crimes with which they had been charged, and which they believed to be clearly proved; that they ought, from the diversity of their crimes, to suffer in three different manners: first, to be drawn on a hurdle to the place of execution, there to be beheaded, and afterwards to be hung on a gibbet. Agreeably to this sentence they were executed, before the castle of

Bristol, in the sight of the king, sir Hugh Spencer, and all those within it. This execution took place in October, on St. Denis's day, 1326.'

The author thus describes our northern fellow-subjects:

'The Scots are bold, hardy, and much inured to war. When they make their invasions into England, they march from twenty to four-and-twenty leagues without halting, as well by night as day, for they are all on horseback, except the camp followers, who are on foot. The knights and esquires are well mounted on large bay horses, the common people on little galloways. They bring no carriages with them, on account of the mountains they have to pass in Northumberland; neither do they carry with them any provisions of bread or wine, for their custom and sobriety is such, in time of war, that they will live for a long time on flesh half sodden without bread, and drink the river water without wine. They have therefore no occasion for pots or pans, for they dress the flesh of their cattle in the skins, after they have taken them off; and being sure to find plenty of them in the country which they invade, they carry none with them. Under the flaps of his saddle each man carries a broad plate of metal, behind the saddle a little bag of oatmeal;—when they have eaten too much of this sodden flesh, and their stomach appears weak and empty, they place this plate over the fire, mix with water their oatmeal, and, when the plate is heated, they put a little of the paste upon it, and make a thin cake, like a cracknell or biscuit, which they eat to warm their stomachs: it is therefore no wonder, that they perform a longer day's march than other soldiers.'

In the best reigns, instances occur of the deference shewn to the public by the crown; and though it be true that this is not required by any article of the constitution, it is often so indispensible, and in many cases so proper and so strongly dictated by sound policy, as to be put in practice by even wise despots. No monarch furnished more examples of this conciliating conduct than the warlike Edward; as may be seen in this history; in which we are told that he selected for his counsellors, *the wisest and the best beloved by his people.*

From the specimen which we shall now insert, the reader will be able to form a judgment of the minuteness into which the relations of the historian descend. Edward, it is said, deliberated much with his privy council on the subject of his claim to the French crown, and frequently asked their advice; and we are told that

'They at length gave this as their unanimous answer:—'Dear sir, the question is of such importance, that we dare not advise you definitively upon it, but recommend to you, dear sir, to send ambassadors sufficiently instructed to the gallant earl of Hainault, whose daughter you have married, and to lord John, his brother, who has before so valiantly assisted you, to entreat their lordships to advise you how to act, for in such a matter they are better informed than we

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can be: if they agree with you in opinion, they will give you counsel who are the lords most able to assist you, and also point out the most proper means of gaining them to your interest.'

'The king agreed to this proposal, and entreated the bishop of Lincoln to undertake this journey through affection to him, and desired two knights bannerets and two counsellors learned in the law to accompany him on the embassy.

'They set out as soon as they could, embarked and landed at Dunkirk; whence they rode through Flanders to Valenciennes, where they found William earl of Hainault, so sorely afflicted with the gout and gravel that he could not move. The lord John, his brother, was there also, by whom they were much feasted: and to them they explained the object of their mission. Upon which the gallant earl said,

'I vow to God, if the king can succeed in this, I shall be much rejoiced; for, as you may easily imagine, I feel more interested for him who has married my daughter than for king Philip, who has never done any thing for me, although I am married to his sister. He also prevented, clandestinely, the marriage of the young duke of Brabant with my daughter; on which account I will not fail my dearly beloved son, the king of England, any respect, if his council should advise the undertaking of it. I will also give him every aid, as will John, my brother, now present, who has before assisted him. But know, that you must seek for other supporters more powerful than we are, for Hainault is too small a territory to measure itself with the kingdom of France, and England lies too far off to be of help to it.'

'Certainly, sir, you have given us very excellent advice, and testified great love and good will, for which, in the name of our lord and king, I return you my thanks,' replied the bishop of Lincoln: 'but dear sir, tell us the names of those lords that you think can best help our master, that we may report them to him.'

'Upon my soul,' replied the earl, 'I cannot think of any lords, that can so powerfully assist him as the duke of Brabant, his cousin german, the bishop of Liege, the duke of Gueldres, who married his sister, the archbishop of Cologne, the marquis of Juliers, sir Arnold de Bacqueghen, and the lord of Fauquemont:—these are the lords that can in a short time furnish greater numbers of men at arms than any I know:—they are very warlike themselves, and, if they choose, can easily make up ten thousand men completely armed and equipped; but you must give them money before hand, for they are men who love to gain wealth. If by your means the king, my son-in-law, and your lord, can ally himself with the lords whom I have just mentioned, and was on this side of the sea, he might pass the river Oise to seek king Philip, and offer him battle.

'The ambassadors returned to London with the answer they had received, which when king Edward heard, it gave him much pleasure and comfort.'

The age of Chivalry was by no means free from demagogic ascendancy and tyranny; nor was monarchy at this time so delicate as to affect any reluctance to acknowlege its sway, or to enter into relations of amity with it.

'There was in Ghent a man that had formerly been a brewer of metheglin, called Jacob von Artaveld, who had gained so much popular favour and power over the Flemings, that every thing was done according to his will. He commanded in all Flanders, from one end to the other, with such authority, that no one dared to contradict his orders.

'Whenever he went out into the city of Ghent, he was attended by three or four score armed men on foot, among whom were two or three that were in his secrets: if he met any man, whom he hated or suspected, he was instantly killed; for he had ordered those who were in his confidence to remark whenever he should make a particular sign on meeting any person, and to murder him directly without fail, or waiting further orders, of whatever rank he might be. This happened very frequently; so that many principal men were killed: and he was so dreaded, that no one dared to speak against his actions, or scarce to contradict him, but all were forced to entertain him handsomely.

'When his companions before mentioned had conducted him to his hôtel, each went home to his dinner, and immediately after returned to the street before his house, where they remained making a noise and brawling, until he pleased to come out and go round the town, to pass his time and amuse himself; and thus was he escorted until he chose to go to supper.

'Each of these soldiers had four Flemish groats a day, as wages, and for his expences, which he had paid to him very regularly every week. He had also in every town and castlewick, through Flanders, sergeants and soldiers in his pay, to execute his orders, and serve him as spies, to find out if any were inclined to rebel against him, and to give him information.

'The instant he knew of any such being in a town, he was banished or killed without delay, and none were so great as to be exempted, for so early did he take such measures to guard himself.

'At the same time he banished all the most powerful knights and esquires from Flanders, and such citizens from the principal towns, as he thought were in the least favourable to the earl; seized one half of their rents, giving the other moiety for the dower of their wives and support of their children. Those that were banished, of which the number was very considerable, resided for the most part at St. Omer, and were called *les avolez*.

'To speak the truth, there never was in Flanders, or in any other country, count, duke, or prince, who had such perfect command as Jacob von Artaveld. He collected the rents, the duties on wines, and other taxes, belonging to the earl, and which were the earl's rights, in whatever part of the county of Flanders he might reside; he raised also extraordinary subsidies, which he spent and gave away, without rendering account to any one. When he said he was in want of money, he was immediately believed—and well it was for them who did believe him—for it was perilous to contradict him; and if he wished to borrow money of any of the citizens, there was no one that dared to refuse him.'

Edward sent ambassadors of high rank, bearing magnificent presents, to this insurgent demagogue, who succeeded in gaining him over to the king's interest; and we learn that afterward, in the full market place of Ghent, he 'explained the right king Edward had to the crown of France to all those lords that chose to hear him, and of what importance it was to the three countries, that is to say, Flanders, Brabant, and Hainault, when closely united. He spoke so clearly, and with so much eloquence, that he was praised by all, who agreed that he was worthy to exercise the dignity of earl of Flanders.' The account which Froissart gives of the alliances formed by Edward, previously to the war with France, is very full and particular, and throws great light on the subsequent transactions.

We must not pass over the description of the first naval engagement between England and France, which signalized the reign of Edward; and which seems to have been as decisive as similar contests in later times, when victory on the part of the English is considered as inseparable from a battle:

'Edward and his whole navy sailed from the Thames the day before the eve of St. John the Baptist, 1340, and made straight for Sluys.

'Sir Hugh Quiriel, sir Peter Bahucet, and Barbenoir, were at that time lying between Blanckenburg and Sluys with upwards of one hundred and twenty large vessels, without counting others: these were manned with about forty thousand men, Genoese and Picards, including mariners. By the orders of the king of France, they were there at an anchor waiting the return of the king of England to dispute his passage.

'When the king's fleet was almost got to Sluys, they saw so many masts standing before it, that they looked like a wood. The king asked the commander of his ship what they could be, who answered, that he imagined they must be that armament of Normans, which the king of France kept at sea, and which had so frequently done him much damage, had burnt his good town of Southampton, and taken his large ship the Christopher.

'The king replied, 'I have for a long time wished to meet with them, and now, please God and St. George, we will fight with them; for, in truth, they have done me so much mischief, that I will be revenged on them, if it be possible.'

'The king then drew up all his vessels, placing the strongest in front, and on the wings his archers. Between every two vessels with archers there was one of men at arms. He stationed some detached vessels as a reserve, full of archers, to assist and help such as might be damaged.'—

'When the king of England and his marshals had properly divided the fleet, they hoisted their sails to have the wind on their quarter, as the sun shone full in their faces, which they considered might be of disadvantage to them, and stretched out a little, so that at last they got the wind as they wished.

'The Normans, who saw them tack, could not help wondering why they did so, and said they took good care to turn about, for they were afraid of meddling with them: they perceived, however, by his banner, that the king was on board, which gave them great joy, as they were eager to fight with him; so they put their vessels in proper order. for they were expert and gallant men on the seas. They filled the Christopher, the large ship which they had taken the year before from the English, with trumpets and other warlike instruments, and ordered her to fall upon the English.

'The battle then began very fiercely; archers and cross bowmen shot with all their might at each other, and the men at arms engaged hand to hand: in order to be more successful, they had large grapnels, and iron hooks with chains, which they flung from ship to ship, to moor them to each other. There were many valiant deeds performed, many prisoners made, and many rescues.

'The Christopher, which led the van, was re-captured by the English, and all in her taken or killed. There were then great shouts and cries, and the English manned her again with archers, and sent her to fight against the Genoese.

'This battle was very murderous and horrible. Combats at sea are more destructive and obstinate than upon land, for it is not possible to retreat or flee—every one must abide his fortune, and exert his prowess and valour.

'Sir Hugh Quiriel and his companions were bold and determined men, had done much mischief to the English at sea, and destroyed many of their ships: this combat, therefore, lasted from early in the morning until noon, and the English were hard pressed, for their enemies were four to one, and the greater part men who had been used to the sea.

'The king, who was in the flower of his youth, showed himself on that day a gallant knight, as did the earls of Derby, Pembroke, Hereford, Huntingdon, Northampton, and Gloucester; the lord Reginald Cobham, lord Felton, lord Bradestan, sir Richard Stafford, the lord Percy, sir Walter Manny, sir Henry de Flanders, sir John Beauchamp, sir John Chandos, the lord Delaware, Lucie lord Malton, and the lord Robert d'Artois, now called the earl of Richmond. I cannot remember all the names of those who behaved so valiantly in the combat; but they did so well, that, with some assistance from Bruges and those parts of the country, the French were completely defeated, and all the Normans and the others were killed or drowned, so that not one of them escaped. This was soon known all over Flanders; and when it came to the two armies before Thin l'Evêque, the Hainaulters were as much rejoiced, as their enemies were dismayed.'

As the facts recorded in this volume have been, for the most part, transplanted into modern compilations, and are therefore familiar to historical readers, we shall not add many more extracts; referring the curious to the work itself, in the artless and unadorned pages of which they will form a better acquaintance with the gallant Prince who raised the military glory

glory of England to the highest pitch, than in the elaborate volumes of later writers. If they discover a want of plan in the vast struggle, and if they charge it with having been unproductive, let them recollect that it gave a spirit and a tone to the country, which was of much greater value than conquests. Yet even this view of the matter, animating as it certainly is, will be insufficient to soothe the mind while it runs over the details of calamities and horrors to which the ambition of Edward gave occasion; for never was kingdom so distracted and ravaged as was France at this period. We allude to the unparalleled cruelties of the *Jacquerie*, and the incursions of the Navarrois in all parts of that unhappy country. The reader will be disappointed in regard to the account of the *Jacquerie* with which he will here meet; for though some of the more shocking enormities are particularly stated, little is to be found that throws light on the origin and causes of that strange insurrection.

Much praise is due to Mr. Johnes for the pains which he has taken to correct the errors of Froissart by comparing his narration with other accounts, some of which are of difficult access. By the assistance of MSS. in his magnificent library, he has been able to add to the text of his original some very curious chapters, which have all the appearance of being genuine: but he seems, with great reason, to think that he has not completely filled up the chasm. In those which he has inserted, we find a reference to the great plague which at that period over-ran the whole known world, and which was attended with such fatal effects; and Mr. Johnes very naturally supposes that Froissart must have given some account of it, though none appears in any of the printed editions, nor in any of the known MSS., except the reference before mentioned.

We have noticed the respect shewn to a sacred principle of law in the trial of Sir Hugh Spencer and the Earl of Arundel, and recognized in it the germ of that legal security for the lives and fortunes of the subject which after-times matured. A complete contrast occurs in the history of France, of a somewhat later date. No inquiry by Peers intervenes here, no trial even in name takes place, no form is regarded, the monarch suspects, the offenders are seized, no accusation is preferred against them, they are not interrogated, the royal mandate is given, and they suffer capitally. The persons to whom we allude, as thus summarily treated, had been concerned in a very foul and aggravated murder, that of a constable of France, but they had received the royal pardon for this enormity. Yet after having experienced such an act of clemency, 'the king of Navarre had conspired and done many things contrary to the honor of the king, and the good of his realm; the earl of Harcourt had also used

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many injurious expressions in the castle of Vaudreuil, when an assembly was holding there to grant a subsidy to the king of France against the said king, in order to prevent, as much as lay in his power, the subsidy from being agreed to.' The king of France, therefore, having gone to the castle of Rouen, where these Lords were, had them arrested, and then rode, attended by all his company, to a field behind the castle called the Field of Pardon. He 'then ordered the earl of Harcourt, the lord of Graville, the lord Maubué and Oliver Doublet to be brought thither in two carts: their heads were cut off, and their bodies dragged to the gibbet at Rouen, where they were hung, and their heads placed upon the gibbet.'

The present volume carries down the history to the renewal of the war in Guienne after the peace of Bretigny, and closes soon after the time in which Charles V. gives defiance to Edward III., just before the commencement of the melancholy reverses which happened to the British interests in France. We are not informed when we may expect the remainder of the work, but we understand that the translator is busily employed on it. Mr. Johnes has the merit of having, in part, ably and successfully executed a laborious and difficult duty, and of having made a valuable addition to our libraries. We think, ~~however~~ moreover, that he will have rendered the public no mean service, if he inspires persons of cultivated minds with a desire to consult the fountain-head of history, and to examine, with their own eyes, its unadulterated sources; where they will discern the vigorous plant of our nascent liberty, and become acquainted with some qualities of our less cultivated ancestors, which we should more warmly cherish and encourage, in an age which boasts of superior intelligence and refinement.

The plates are interesting elucidations of manners and costume, though possessing little merit as specimens of art.

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ART. II. *The Scenery, Antiquities, and Biography of South Wales*, from Materials collected during two Excursions in the Year 1803. By Benjamin Heath Malkin, Esq., M.A. F.S.A. Embellished with Views drawn on the Spot, and engraved by Laporte; and a Map of the Country. 4to. pp. 634. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1804.

LET not the reader be terrified by the large bulk of this volume; for if he advances in the perusal of it, he will not deem it too extensive. Every topic, on which the modern tourist descants, here receives attention, and is treated in appropriate terms and pleasing language. The descriptions of the picturesque manifest considerable animation and felicity, while care is taken not to introduce the subject too frequently,

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or to dwell on it too much; and the attention is, at proper intervals, relieved by topographical disquisitions, by portions of antient history, by pictures of retired life, by sketches of rural economy, by traits of national character, and by a variety of interesting anecdotes and sensible reflections. The chapters form convenient breaks; and if we are contented to take up one or two of them at a time, and cast our eyes occasionally over the map, we shall find Mr. Malkin to be an instructive companion, and we shall follow him through his various peregrinations with unabating interest. If he be not a profound antiquary, nor a consummate connoisseur, he possesses that knowlege which enables him to pass a respectable judgment on the objects of this nature which fall in his way; and he also displays a mastery of style to which practice seems alone wanting, in order to render it as easy and flowing as it is forcible and correct. Evidences of laudable pains distinguish as well the undertaking as the written account of it, and we have no hesitation in assigning to Mr. Malkin a place in the first class of tourists; confident that all who travel over the same ground will acknowlege his work to be a most valuable *vade mecum;* and that in this view it has only one objection, viz. its size and form.

Mr. M. enters the southern part of the principality by Glamorganshire, and proceeds through Brecknockshire, Radnorshire, Cardiganshire, and Pembrokeshire, into Carmarthenshire. We early learn from his remarks that a national spirit is far from being yet extinguished in these parts, of which he gives a striking proof:

'In general, a long connection melts the manners and the language into those of the predominant power: but in Wales, though English and Englishmen are gradually enlarging their sphere, the progress is far from being accelerated in proportion to the time and distance. The common people still look with an evil eye on the intrusion of strangers. This may seem to accord ill with their proverbial attribute of hospitality: but the fact is, that highly as they are gratified by the interest a traveller takes in their scenery and antiquities, and agreeable as they render his temporary residence among them, they have no desire to see him become a settler. The instances of remaining prejudice, though wearing away, are still frequent, and often whimsical. One of the most singular occurred to the Lord Chancellor Talbot; it was almost too strong to be laughable, and certainly too malignant, to do credit to the spirit that suggested it.

'Lord Talbot, during an excursion on horseback, had parted from his servant, and continued his ride alone to the bank of one of the rivers near Hensol; probably either Elwy or Taff. He met with a countryman, of whom he inquired, whether the stream was fordable in that place. The rustic nodded assent, in a manner which happened not precisely to meet with Lord Talbot's approbation, who repeated the

the question in Welsh. The man, with much emotion, exclaimed, "Oh no!—For Heaven's sake, do not attempt it; it is very dangerous. Come with me, and I will shew you the ford! I beg your pardon most humbly;—but indeed, Sir, I took you for a Saxon!"

We submit to our readers the succeeding observations of the author, because we do not recollect to have met with similar reflections in any former accounts of the same country:

'One of the reflections, which will most forcibly strike an observing traveller in Wales, and scarcely meet with credit from those who have not visited the country, is the height of improvement and grandeur to which it had attained, at an era looked back upon as barbarous, through the delusive medium of modern pride. The stile of castle architecture, the stile of cathedral architecture, the stile even of the cottages that yet remain, evince the flourishing state of those arts, which infer a corresponding convenience in others, whose evanescent nature precludes us from more direct evidence of their perfection. Wherever we see large mansions, adapted to the accommodation of numerous guests and domestics, or the reception of military squadrons, we take it for granted, the access to these places was by wide and convenient roads. Wherever we observe the remains of large and populous towns, however ruinous their present condition, we naturally suppose them to have been supplied by plentiful and choice markets. Considering the face of the country in this light, we must contemplate it with astonishment. The continual recurrence of castles, some built for strength, and others for magnificence, but all with demonstrations of skill, extorting the acknowledgment of inferiority from the candid workmen of these days, is of itself a sufficient proof, how considerable must have been the population, how great the warlike force of the district. In England, our ancestors have left us, dispersed in various places, splendid remains of their greatness: but in Wales, you can scarcely travel ten miles, without coming upon some vestige of antiquity, which in another country you would go fifty to trace out. Nor is it alone in the palaces of the lords, that these features of civilization are to be found. The ruins of ancient farms and barns are particularly to be noticed, as unquestionable evidences of opulence and fertility. The agriculture of the country was much in the hands of the clergy; and it was no uncommon thing, to meet with barns, belonging to abbeys and monasteries, capable of containing more than the produce of the parish in which they are situated, in the present supposedly improved state of cultivation. Many of the barns belonging to parsonages are of dimensions, the occupation of which the modern incumbent vainly sighs to behold; and breathes, from his contracted benefice, the frail spirit of envy, at the lost revenues of his long departed predecessors.'

If we did not find Mr. Malkin to be in general an observing and an accurate traveller, we should feel very much inclined to call in question this latter fact.—We must not pass over Mr. M.'s testimony to the loyalty of our worthy fellow-subjects:

'On the whole, the pleasure of a tour in Wales is in some degree tinged with melancholy, on observing the honest and amiable manners

ners of its inhabitants, to find so many appearances of a fallen country. It is true, the consolidation is, on the whole, for the benefit of both parties; and Wales yields not, in the shadow of a thought, to England, in loyalty to the reigning family. Indeed, the King seems to be the only Saxon, to whom they are thoroughly reconciled. Yet, when we consider how highly they valued their independence, and how respectable is that sentiment in a nation, we cannot but regret that the union of interests was necessarily to be obtained, at the expence of patriotic feeling, and with some diminution of that consequence, so proudly maintained by their ancestors.'

There is not, we suspect, that sacrifice of nationality to loyalty on the part of the Cambrians, with which they are here complimented. Mr. Malkin forgets the antient British blood, the blood of the Tudors, which runs in the veins of our sovereign: but we believe that to this circumstance is owing no small portion of that attachment to their king, in which the Welsh yield to none.

Our instructive traveller, describing a very mean and ill built town in the hilly part of Glamorganshire, meets in it with an occasion for an episode which, we apprehend, the intelligent reader will consider as very materially tending to justify us in the character which we have given to his labours:

'One of the circumstances which most distinguishes the parish of Llantrisent, is that of its having given birth to Sir Lhewelin, or Leolinus, Jenkins, of whose life it may not be uninteresting to give a short abstract. It is an honourable peculiarity in the history and character of this country, and proves its aristocratical institutions to be tempered with practical freedom, that persons born in very humble situations are not unfrequently seen rising to the first offices of state: and where such elevation is not suspected to have been owing to those party cabals, which give the needy and unprincipled an opportunity of lending themselves to the purposes of men in high stations; where no whimsical accident has thrust greatness on shoulders not designed to bear it; there is no page of biography more pleasing to read, no feature in the portrait of a nation to be studied with more advantage. In the instance before us, no powerful patronage tore off the veil, which diffidence and want of opportunity too often cast over merit: to his own assiduity and incessant application, joined with a rational dependence on his own powers, this successful traveller in the road of fortune was indebted for his first advancement, and to unfailing probity, for his multiplied and lasting honours. He was the son of Jenkin Lhewelin, a small freeholder, and was instructed in the rudiments of the Latin and Greek languages at a grammar school in Cowbridge, whence he was removed to Oxford at the age of sixteen, and admitted a member of Jesus College in the year 1641. But on the breaking out of the civil wars, after having taken up arms for the royal cause, though he did not long continue in a military capacity, he was under the necessity of leaving the university, and of returning to Glamorganshire. In a short time, he was engaged

as a tutor for the son of Sir John Aubrey, at Llantrythid, which was then an asylum to the persecuted royalists. Here he became acquainted with many eminent characters, and amongst others, with Dr. Frewyn, Archbishop of York, and with Dr. Sheldon, afterwards Archbishop of Canterbury. Having been forced, by the misfortunes of the times, to leave the kingdom, after a second attempt to settle in Oxford, he travelled, during the period of three years, over a great part of France, Germany, and Holland, by which means he acquired a proficiency in the languages of those countries. At the restoration, he returned to Jesus College, and was elected one of the fellows. Soon after, on the resignation of Dr. Mansel, he was unanimously chosen principal of the society. When the Dutch war increased the business and fatigues of the court, he was, in consequence of his profound knowledge in civil and maritime law, made assistant to Dr. Exton, judge of the admiralty: and after he had exercised his functions jointly for some time, on the death of the principal, he was himself appointed sole judge; in which situation his charges and decisions are deservedly held in repute even to the present day. In the year 1668, he was appointed, by the Archbishop of Canterbury, at the express desire of King Charles the Second, to succeed Dr. Myric as judge in the prerogative court of Canterbury: and his conduct in each court was honourable to himself, in proportion as it was satisfactory and beneficial to his country. Henrietta Maria, the widow of Charles the First, died in France in the year 1669. Her property was claimed by her nephew Lewis the Fourteenth. Dr. Jenkins, with three others, was commissioned to go to Paris, where he demanded and recovered the queen-mother's effects, discharged her debts, and provided for her interment: and King Charles the Second, to testify his high approbation of the services performed in this instance, conferred on him the honour of knighthood on his return to England. His next appointment was to be one of the commissioners on the part of England, to treat with those authorized from Scotland about an union between the two kingdoms. He was chosen a representative in parliament for Hythe in Kent, one of the cinque ports, in the year 1671. In 1673, having resigned his situation as principal of Jesus College, this rising statesman was appointed to attend a congress at Cologne, as ambassador and plenipotentiary with others, for the purpose of attempting to settle a treaty of peace under the mediation of Sweden, between the Emperor, Spain, and Holland, on the one part, and England and France on the other. The negociation having failed at Cologne, he was appointed one of the mediators in the discussion of the treaty at Nimeguen, in conjunction with the celebrated Sir William Temple. From Nimeguen he was appointed ambassador extraordinary to the Hague, where having continued a short time, he returned to Nimeguen, and succeeded most happily in accommodating all differences. In 1679, he returned to England, after having been employed above four years in a tedious treaty. Soon after his arrival in England, he was elected one of the representatives for the university of Oxford. In 1680, he was sworn a privy councillor, and was appointed secretary of state. He retained the seals about four years, during a period

of uncommon difficulty, owing to party rancour and animosity. On resigning his office as secretary of state, in consequence of his declining health, he retired to Hammersmith, between three and four miles from the metropolis: but having been again elected a member for the university of Oxford, he was sworn of the privy council, after the accession of James the Second. But his indisposition speedily returned, and he died on the first of September 1685. His remains were conveyed to Oxford, and interred in the area of Jesus College chapel, where there is an epitaph written in Latin by his friend Dr. Fell, at that time bishop of Oxford and dean of Christ Church, which enumerates his offices and honours in regular progression, and concludes with styling him almost a second founder of Jesus. Having never been married, his whole estate was bequeathed to charitable uses; and by far the greatest part of it was left after his death to that college, which he had so liberally patronized in his life-time. The events, which are here sketched, require no comment: but I would briefly call the attention of my reader to the circumstance, that this distinguished Knight, Doctor of Laws, Judge, Privy Councillor, and Secretary of State, was not worth a surname. The son of Jenkin Lhewelin, a common combination to this day, became Sir Lhewelin Jenkin, according to the very singular custom of this country: but the latter noun, to comply with English manners, was pluralized into a permanent surname, and, had he been married, would probably have given birth to a higher race of Jenkins's. It adds not a little to the pleasure, with which we contemplate so deserved an elevation, that Jenkin Lhewelin and Elizabeth his wife both lived till the year 1667, and consequently shared in the prosperity of their son.'

New Bridge has been seen by most of our fashionable travellers into Wales. Its span exceeds that of the Rialto, which was previously the largest arch in Europe, by forty-two feet; and its architect was a self-taught mason, of the name of William Edwards, of whom a very interesting account is here given; a part of which we cannot forbear laying before our readers, regretting that our limits will not allow us to quote the whole:

'The literary knowledge of William Edwards was at first confined to the Welsh language, which he could read and write from early youth. He was supposed to be rather obstinate when a boy; an imputation which generally rests on genius, that sees beyond the scope of those by whom it is controlled. His own account of this alleged temper was, that he always considered whether any thing that was proposed to him, or any principle he was required to act upon, coincided with his own ideas of rectitude. If he found that it did, he firmly persisted in it. His general character was that of uncommon resolution and inflexibility. He was very wild, as it is commonly reported of him, till about eighteen years of age. After that period, he became very steady and sedate. A neighbour instructed him a little in arithmetic. About the age of twenty or twenty-one, he undertook the building of a large iron forge at Cardiff, and lodged with a person named Walter Rosser, a baker, and blind. This man taught

taught English reading. William Edwards was alive to every opportunity of improvement, and rapidly acquired what he eagerly pursued. He seems, indeed, to have possessed a mind, that could not easily be stopped in its progress. To the two languages, however, his attainments in literature were confined; but their application to the various branches of study in which he was engaged, afforded constant exercise even to his industry and spirit of inquiry. After he had performed his engagement at Cardiff, he built many good houses, with several forges and smelting houses, and was for many years employed at works of this nature by John Morris, of Clasemont, Esq.

'Caerphilly Castle is in his native parish. He has often been heard to say, that he would frequently visit that celebrated ruin, and study the principles of its excellent masonry, with all its various peculiarities, appearing in those venerable remains. He considered himself to have derived more important knowledge from this, than from any other circumstance. Indeed, his principles were formed on those of the Caerphilly Castle masonry. He was, what may with sufficient propriety be termed, a mason of the ancient castle, or Gothic school. His manner of hewing and dressing his stones was exactly that of the old castle-masons. He put them together in a style of closeness, neatness, and firmness, that is never seen but in those ancient, and, as far as we know, everlasting edifices. His son is perhaps the only workman remaining, who, on any occasion, practises the ancient masonry: and in the modern he is equally a proficient.-

'The full complement of business, which usually attends a high reputation in any line, might be supposed to have engrossed all the time and thoughts of a self-taught man. But William Edwards united with his trade the occupation of a farmer during the whole of his life. Nor was Sunday, though a sabbath, a day of rest to him; for then he had clerical functions to exercise. In his religious sentiments he was a dissenter, of the denomination styled Independents. About 1750, he was regularly ordained according to the usage of the sect of which he was a member; and about the same time was chosen minister of the congregation meeting at a chapel in his native parish, where he officiated for forty years, and till he died. He was a Calvinist, but of a very liberal description: indeed, he carried his charity so far, that many persons suspected he had changed his opinions, and for that reason spoke very unhandsomely of him. For a length of time, during the last years of his ministry, he always avoided in his discourses those points of doctrine that were more peculiarly in dispute between the Calvinists and other parties. He frequently repeated and enforced a maxim, well worthy the adoption of the most enlightened and eminent divines: that the love of God and of our neighbour is the ultimate end of all religions, which having attained, their possessors had arrived at their object; and that it is against the spirit of Christianity to suppose, that among all parties, be they what they may, there are not many who have indisputably obtained this distinguishing characteristic. Few among his party were considered to be so edifying in their discourses as he was; and this specimen has a tendency to accredit the opinion: but sentiments of such liberality and moderation must have been suspected of trenching a little on the

soundness

soundness of his Calvinism. Another principle of his evinced that his judgment was equal to his candour. He always declared it to be the duty of a religious society, to support their minister decently; and for this reason he took from his congregation the stipulated salary, though he never converted a single farthing of it to his own use, but distributed the whole among the poor members of the church, and even added very considerably to this largess from his own personal property. He very wisely alleged, that though a lucrative business would have allowed him to officiate gratuitously, his successor might be differently circumstanced; and the people, relieved from a burden for a time, would look with an evil eye on an instructor, who had it not in his power to exhibit similar disinterestedness. So judicious a mixture of prudence and generosity might furnish a lesson to certain undiscriminating enthusiasts, who brand with the opprobrious name of hire those fair emoluments, from which respectable abilities, however or wherever employed, are entitled to derive ease and competence. From these authentic notices it will sufficiently appear, that those who have termed him sarcastically, or by way of ridicule, a methodist preacher, have egregiously misrepresented him. He never officiated at any of the methodist meetings. He frequently preached at the dissenting meeting house of the Rev. Lewis Rees, father of Dr. Abraham Rees, the editor of the New Encyclopedia. This meeting-house was situated near Morriston, the building of which he superintended. Many of his discourses were taken down in short-hand by William Jones, clerk to Mr. Padley of Swansea. They were always delivered in Welsh. It may well be supposed that he detested an intolerant or persecuting spirit; and always reprobated the rancour of too many dissenters towards the established church. He was well respected by the most intelligent and liberal of all sects and parties, and died, very much lamented by all who knew him, in the year 1789, and in the seventieth year of his age, in his native parish of Eglwysilan, where he lies buried in the churchyard.'

Near Duffrin House, the seat of William Booth Grey, Esq. situated in this part of Glamorganshire, Mr. Malkin finds one of the most singular cromlechs in all Wales; the superincumbent stone being three times the size of that which covers a similar edifice near Newport in Pembrokeshire. We are far from being of Mr. Malkin's opinion, that there were no churches in Britain till the mission of the Saints Germanus and Lupus in the fifth century; and we could, were this the proper place, allege strong grounds for our dissent. That many of the genuine Britons retained their partiality for worship in the open air, and might so conduct it after their conversion, may be naturally supposed: but that this was the universal, or even the general mode, we cannot admit.

The Welsh legends take notice of Merthyr Tydvil as the site on which certain antient Britons suffered martyrdom from pagan Saxons and Picts; and the name favours the tale, Merthyr, in the Welsh language, signifying martyr. In modern

times, it has been distinguished as the first place where nonconformity erected its standard in Wales, and where it has flourished, from the period of its first appearance in 1620, to the present day. This circumstance induced Mr. Vavasor Powel, a person of a respectable family, educated at Jesus College, Oxford, and the father of the Baptist sect in the principality, to make it his residence. It has been observed that manufactures and traffic favour the growth of Dissenters: but in the case before us, sectarianism has anticipated commerce and beneficial public works. Mr. Malkin, after having stated the particulars of the early martyrdom, and detailed the more recent sufferings of the Baptist-apostle, justly observes:

'It was not to the bloody memory of its martyrs, whether ancient or modern, that Merthyr Tydvil was to owe its rank in the historic page; for it continued a very inconsiderable village till about the year 1755, when the late Mr. Bacon took more notice of the iron and coal mines, with which this tract of country abounds, than they had before excited. For the very low rent of two hundred pounds per annum, he obtained a lease of a district, at least eight miles long and four wide, for ninety-nine years. It is to be understood, however, that his right extended only to the iron and coal mines found on the estate, and that he had, comparatively, a very small portion of the soil on the surface, on which he erected his works for smelting and forging the iron. He possessed in addition some fields for the keep of his horses, and other necessary conveniencies. He at first constructed one furnace; and little besides this was done, probably for at least ten years. The next advance was the erection of a forge for working pig into bar iron. About the beginning of the American war, Mr. Bacon contracted with government for casting cannon. Proper founderies were erected for this purpose; and a good turnpike road was made down to the port of Cardiff, along an extent of twenty-six miles. At Cardiff likewise a proper wharf was formed, still called the cannon wharf, whence the cannon where shipped off to Plymouth, Portsmouth, and wherever the service required. These were carried in waggons down to Cardiff, at a prodigious expence of carriages, horses, and roads. There are those who do not hesitate to assert, but I know not with what truth, that sixteen horses were sometimes employed to draw the waggon that contained only one cannon. It is likewise said, that the roads were so torn by these heavy waggons and the weight of their loads, that it was a month's work for one man to repair the turnpike after every deportation of cannon. I had no opportunity of inquiring properly and minutely into the truth of these relations; but I cannot help suspecting them to be matter of fact in the main, hyperbolically aggravated, though I derive the account from very respectable sources of information.

'This contract is supposed to have been immensely lucrative to Mr. Bacon; but he was obliged to relinquish it about the close of the American war, or rather to transfer it to the Carron Company in Scotland, as I have been informed; where most, perhaps all, of the

cannon

cannon are now cast. He made this disposal, that he might be enabled to hold a seat in parliament, to which he had been elected. Soon afterwards, about the year 1783, he granted leases, I believe for thirty years, but I cannot answer for my own accuracy on this point, of his remaining term, in the following parcels: Cyfarthfa Works, the largest portion, to Mr. Crawshay, for five thousand pounds per annum; Penderyn to Mr. Homfray, at two thousand pounds per annum; Dowlas Iron Works to Messrs. Lewis and Tate, and a fourth part to Mr. Hill. What the rents of these two portions are, I have not learned from any direct intelligence; but I conclude them to amount in the whole to three thousand pounds, because it is very generally asserted and believed, that the heirs of Mr. Bacon have from all those works a clear annual income of ten thousand pounds. Mr. Crawshay's iron works of Cyfarthfa are now by far the largest in this kingdom; probably, indeed, the largest in Europe; and in that case, as far as we know, the largest in the world. He employs constantly upwards of two thousand men; and pays weekly in wages and other expences of the works, twenty-five thousand pounds. He makes, upon an average, between sixty and seventy tons of iron every week; and has lately erected two new additional furnaces, which will soon begin to work; when he will be able to make, one week with the other, one hundred tons of bar iron. Mr Homfray makes weekly, on a moderate average, fifty tons of bar iron and upwards, and is now extending Penderyn and its buildings, which will soon be completed. He will then make at least eighty tons per week. Dowlas Iron Works, belonging to Messrs. Lewis and Tate, are on as large a scale as those of Penderyn, and about to be augmented in an equal proportion. Those of Mr. Hill make now thirty tons of iron weekly, and upwards. Additional buildings are now erecting, which, when finished, will make at least forty tons per week. At present more than two hundred tons of iron are sent down the canal weekly to the port of Cardiff, whence it is shipped off to Bristol, London, Plymouth, Portsmouth, and other places, and a considerable quantity to America. It is supposed that in the course of a year or two they will be able to send out three hundred tons weekly. The number of smelting furnaces at Merthyr Tydvil is about sixteen. Six of these belong to Cyfarthfa Works; the rest to the other gentlemen who have been named. Around each of these furnaces are erected forges and rolling mills for converting pig into plate and bar iron.

'This town, as it may properly be termed, is now by far the largest in the whole principality. Its population, in the year 1802, was found to be upwards of ten thousand; and it is supposed that it amounts at this time, December 1803, though at the interval of only one year from the date of the numeration, to considerably more than eleven thousand; and this is to be understood, without including the suburb, as we may denominate it correctly enough, of Coed y Cummar, on the Brecknockshire side of the river, the population of which is at least one thousand. Swansea, heretofore the largest town in Wales, exceeding every other town by at least one thousand inhabitants, is now nearly, if not quite, doubled by Merthyr Tydvil. It is true, the external appearance of Merthyr Tydvil is not to

be compared with that of Swansea. The house of Mr. Homfray at Penderyn is large and elegant, with fine and well-planted gardens, green-houses, hot-houses, and all the accommodations befitting the residence of a wealthy family: but the splendours of Merthyr Tydvil begin and end with this mansion. When the first furnaces and forges were erected, there could not exist the slightest glimmering of prescience, that this little obscure Welsh village would, in less than forty years, grow up to such a magnitude, as to be far more populous than any other town in Wales. The first houses that were built were only very small and simple cottages for furnace-men, forge-men, miners, and such tradesmen as were necessary to construct the required buildings, with the common labourers who were employed to assist them. These cottages were most of them built in scattered confusion, without any order or plan. As the works increased, more cottages were wanted, and erected in the spaces between those that had been previously built, till they became so connected with each other, as to form a certain description of irregular streets, very much on the plan of Crooked Lane in the city of London. These streets are now many in number, close and confined, having no proper outlets behind the houses. They are consequently very filthy for the most part, and doubtless very unhealthy. Some streets, it is to be observed, have within these few years been built, and more are building, on a better plan; in straighter lines, and wider, having decent houses, with commodious outlets, and other necessary attentions to cleanliness and health. In some of the early, and rudely-connected streets, we frequently see the small, miserable houses taken down, and larger and very seemly ones built in their stead. Such improvements are increasing with some degree of rapidity. 'Shopkeepers, innkeepers, forge-men, some of them at least, and in no inconsiderable numbers, are making comfortable fortunes, and consequently improving their dwellings. Mr. Crawshay, however, is more conspicuously qualified to set them an example of industry than elegance. His house is surrounded with fire, flame, smoke, and ashes. The noise of hammers, rolling mills, forges, and bellows incessantly din and crash upon the ear. Bars and pigs of iron are continually thrown to the hugely accumulating heaps that threaten to choke up every avenue of access. It is more humorously than truly said in the neighbourhood, that such scenery is most congenial to the taste, such sounds most lulling to the repose of the owner. The fact, however, is, that the situation of the master's dwelling was fixed long before Mr. Crawshay came to it: and when it is considered how conveniently it lies for the superintendence of the business, few men, brought up in the habits of commercial prudence, would consult agreeable prospects and domestic elegance, at the expence of that best security, the everlasting eye of a principal. The machinery of this establishment is gigantic; and that part of it, worked by water, among the most scientifically curious and mechanically powerful to which modern improvement has given birth. Watkin George and William are the two principal engineers, and natives of this country.'

In

In Brecknockshire, Mr. Malkin meets with scenery which he deems to be the most striking in South Wales. The merits of the following description we regard as very considerable. The reader is made, as it were, to tread in the traveller's steps, to feel his pleasures, and to share in his apprehensions, while the scene embodies itself for his contemplation:

'The route from Tragath to the falls of the Hepsey is over a wild common, stony and dreary, but that the dells on each side enliven the scene. At the upper end of the common, there is a farm-house above the Hepsey, whence the view down the vale of Neath to Swansea and the Mumbles is very grand as well as extensive. Beyond the farm-house is the point where the Hepsey and Melta join. The bed of the former is at an immense depth immediately below, and the two streams are separated by a rich, turfy, well-wooded promontory, forming a frontispiece to the view, when you look up the course of the united rivers. The roaring of the Hepsey cascades is heard at a considerable distance, as they are approached from the upper grounds. On arriving at the edge of the dingle, the great fall bursts at once upon the view: a broad sheet of water projecting itself over an abrupt ledge of rock, to the depth of fifty feet. The distance of the fall from the junction of the two dingles with their streams is less than a quarter of a mile, so that both these objects can be embraced at once from the higher ground. But the general view of scenes like these is never the most interesting. The less obtrusive, but most beautiful features are lost, while the termination detracts from the sublimity. By taking the parts in detail, on the contrary, the attention, undisturbed, is alive to every concomitant circumstance, as well as to the leading character of the object: nothing is overlooked, because nothing is too distant, or too perplexed, to be taken in both by the mind and by the eye: every turn presents something new; while the perspective, lessened into obscurity as it lengthens, holds out the promise of still unexhausted variety. The descent by which to examine the fall more minutely, is down a rugged and steep rock, which forms the boldest feature in the dingle at the bottom, but affords a very abrupt and hazardous passage. The ascent on returning, were it necessary, would be very difficult; and there is apparently no other way; for the violence with which so large a body of water is precipitated, has worn the rock of the bed below the cascade into a large and deep pool, and the breadth of the water all through the dingle, especially when augmented by heavy rains in the night, as on the present occasion, besides other obstacles not yet appearing, prevents its being forded. It excites therefore a strong sensation of surprise, not unaccompanied with pleasure, in the mind of a stranger, when he is told, that his road lies, very unexpectedly, behind or under the cascade; for such is the rapidity of the torrent, unprepared by previous obstacles for the perpendicular of the precipice, that the interwoven sheet is thrown out so far, as to leave a clear passage, at all times, wide enough for a horse path, between the falling river and the rock. This path is formed by a rude natural ledge of limestone, covered with moss, at about one third of the height from the bottom

of the precipice. Its breadth is about three feet, and constitutes the only projection in what would otherwise be like a flat wall. The stone, however, shelves a little inwards from the topmost edge, while the water is forced forwards; so that the two elements unite in forming as it were a roof or canopy over the head of the passenger, which affords him an impenetrable shelter from an occasional storm. Mr. Warner, when he visited this spot, had occasion to seek the protection of the river from a shower of rain. The effect of sunshine on the cascade, when behind it on a fine day, is both grand and beautiful. The particles of water glittering with a silvery brightness as they fall; the uncommon brilliancy of every thing without, seen through such a medium, contrasted with the dark green of the moss, everlastingly wet with spray; the corroded dinginess of the rock; the damp and vaporous gloom of the atmosphere within; altogether form a singularly mingled scene of awe and gaiety. The dark hue of the bason below, deeply excavated by continual attrition, enhances the contrast of the thin, transparent fluid in its descent. After passing the cascade, the stranger has to skirt the further side of the dingle for a few steps, in front of the majestic rock he descended, when he comes upon another cataract, and a large cavern under the opposite bank close by. Three more follow in immediate succession, and all four within an eighth part of a mile from the first. The most considerable of these is about twenty-five feet in height, and the smallest about ten. The last is the largest. These four are all seen at once: but, owing to a bend of the river, the great cascade, though so near, is not seen even from the first of these. Were the five visible at one point of view, they would nearly rival the great fall of the Mynach in Cardiganshire, below the Devil's Bridge; for though they would still be very inferior in point of height, the Hepsey is much broader than the Mynach, and in that respect would have the advantage in respect to grandeur. The whole of this dingle is profusely overgrown with wood of various kinds, among which the venerable and classic oak predominates. From the last of the cascades, the scarcely discernible path winds round the front of that promontory, which separates the two dingles and their rivers. But there is a path; for the country people drive their cattle this way, and under Hepsey cascade, when they have occasion to pass from the Melta to the eastern side of the Hepsey. Having gained the high ground, and passed two or three stony and unproductive fields, the brink of a precipice, not to be descended, discloses the great fall of the Melta, which is broader than that of the Hepsey, and seventy feet high. It is very different from the others in point of character. It projects as suddenly, and, carrying a larger body of water, with more violence. It is therefore more awful and tremendous, but unaccompanied by those circumstances of variety and beauty, which adorn and enliven its rival cataract. Here the rocks on each side are naked and abrupt, so that the dingle is divested of its accustomed clothing for a considerable space below the fall. Where the wood commences, it is poorer, more stunted in its growth, and more wildly entangled; so that, on the whole, it forms a dark and rugged scene. The cascade is inaccessible from below, as the rocks are not to be climbed, nor the dingle to be threaded,

threaded, from the confluence of the two rivers upwards. But the great curiosity of this river, singularly and sublimely characterised in the catalogue of British Scenery, is a stupendous cavern between the cascade and Ystradvellte, through the dark hollow of which the Melta runs for the space of half a mile. The top of this cavern forms the only bridge from one part to the other of the farm, which lies on the east and west sides of the river. The descent from the upper lands to the bed of the river is by no means difficult; nor does it at the first view present any thing beyond a rural, quiet landscape; but as the guide wound cautiously to the left rather in a retrograde direction, we suddenly found ourselves at the mouth of the cavern, the opening of which is about forty-three feet wide, and nineteen feet high. Through this Melta river rolls in a sinuous course, wearing its channel through the rock, deeply perforated into fathomless pools, whence it issues into daylight, after a subterraneous passage of at least eight hundred yards. There is a practicable passage through it; but the attempt is imprudent. It is necessary to carry candles; and if they are extinguished by the damp vapour, the difficulty and danger become very great. In one instance, a life was lost; though my guide had been through several times, and was ready to undertake it with any visitor. We penetrated about an hundred yards, as far as any glimmering of daylight from the mouth directed us: and this specimen of Stygian horror was amply sufficient to satisfy all rational curiosity. The passage over uneven rocks, with scarcely a guiding light, and in many places with a bottomless gulph directly under on the left, in a misty atmosphere from the vapour of the place, and the exhaustion of a laborious walk, was not to be pleasurably continued for any length of time or distance: but if the object be worth attaining, any person who will enter this cavern as far as the natural light will lead him, may form a just, and I apprehend no contracted idea, of the classical Avernus and poetical descent into the infernal regions. On quitting the cavern, the Melta, finding its way into it through deep and narrow gullets, worn between the rocks, is crossed at the entrance, when a regular and beaten path winds gradually and pleasingly along the western bank, with the little village of Ystradvellte in the distance, and green meadows, delightfully quiet and rural, in the fore-ground. The church stands well, and is a pleasing object, after a circuit of about seven miles, with only one house in the way. But the village itself miserably disappoints the expectations which its distant aspect has excited. It consists of a few miserable cottages, most of them in a ruinous condition, inhabited by a ragged and barefooted peasantry, with less of natural urbanity, than is usually experienced in these wild, but not uncivil regions.'

Quitting the hilly part of this country, Mr. M. calls our attention to a subject with which religious austerity and political economy are concerned; and though his account be long, we shall give it in his own words, because we should otherwise do it injustice:

'On descending from these present haunts of mountain sheep, and ancient seats of unsociable and distrustful barons, the traveller arrives suddenly at a spot, the most incongrúous and unexpected that can be conceived in these simple regions.' He finds himself translated all at once to the Paragon, Prospect Place, Paradise Row, Mount Pleasant, or some such supreme court of finery, foppery, and folly, as occurs within a circle of five miles round London: a space which comprehends most of the architectural absurdities, and most of the horticultural deformities, to which a vitiated imagination has ever given birth. Yet does Trevecca seem, by combination, to have outdone them all. Here a Gothic arch! there a Corinthian capital! Towers, battlements, and bastions! Peacocks cut in box, and lions hacked in holly! And who is it that has thus deluged his native country with bad taste? Is it a nabob, an innkeeper, or a dancing-master, who, having contrived to raise a fortune by one of those trades, which often prosper where better fail, prudently determines to record the event, and raise a triumphal monument on the site of his honest father's humble cottage? Nay, verily: it is a preacher of the gospel, professedly of the strictest persuasion and most mortified habits. Howel Harris was born at Trevecca on the 23d of January, 1714. Having a respectable paternal estate in reversion, he was designed by his family for the church, and having received the rudiments of a classical education, was entered at St. Mary's Hall in Oxford; but he did not pursue or perfect those studies at the university, which might have given him rank and character among its members. When he was about the age of twenty-five, he began his career as an itinerant preacher, sacrificing all views of worldly aggrandizement to what he conceived to be his highest duty. But a total want of rationality in the pursuit miserably detracted from that approbation, which must otherwise have been extorted even from his opponents by the unquestionable respectability of the motive. He was the friend of Whitfield, with whom he afterwards quarrelled, and the first importer of the methodistical tenets and discipline, into the principality, as Vavasor Powel had been among the first to introduce the earlier and more respected modes of dissent. He actually officiated in the fields; but, after having undergone much persecution, and incurred some danger in his travels, he determined, being as my landlady at Talgarth informed me, a man of deep religion, to establish a religious family at Trevecca, adopting it as his own, and devoting to it his patrimonial estates, with all the savings of a parsimonious life. With unaccountable inconsistency, he built a large and costly house, and laid out the grounds in the style I have before described. In this house, and on his own estate, he collected a number of families, professing the same religious absorption of mind. He even purchased farms in the neighbourhood, and established manufactories, to as great an extent as his finances would admit, or opportunities presented themselves of laying out his money. The condition he imposed on those who joined his community was, that they should pursue their avocations of husbandry or trade solely for the benefit of the common stock, disclaiming all private property, or interference in the management of the joint capital, renouncing the society of strangers,

strangers, and adhering punctually to the rigid observances of the family. The institution continued to flourish during his lifetime in almost a formidable degree. Their farms entirely supplied their numerous families dispersed over the estates; for the mansion-house was occupied by his own family and closer intimates. There was besides a large surplus for the markets; since their inflexible sobriety was considered to have the effect of making them good farmers, though the business was much interrupted by their unremitting prayers. They also manufactured, independent of other articles, large quantities of fine flannels, the quality of which was in high request all round the country, and large orders were executed for so distant a market as Bristol. Mr. Harris died in July, 1773. I have not been strictly correct in stating the produce of their labours as brought to a common stock, for it was all made over to him without controul, though exclusively and conscientiously applied to their use, and the extension of the establishment. By his will, he bequeathed the whole of his possessions, hereditary and accumulated, to the maintenance of the family for ever, on the strict principles of its foundation. He left two trustees, with regulations for the replacing them, who were to live in the house, receive the earnings of the people, conduct the pecuniary arrangements and devotional services, and in every respect exercise that plenary authority, which he had himself preserved. He was married, and had a daughter, to whom he left nothing, except an apartment in the house, on the same terms as the others, if ever she chose to become a member of the family. It is, however, to be observed, in extenuation of what men of less deep religion will consider as injustice towards a deserving child, that her mother's fortune, not inconsiderable, rendered Miss Harris independent of her father. But this independence, and all worldly cares and possessions, she was to relinquish if ever she came to Trevecca. It will readily be anticipated, that she did not make that election, when the reader is informed that she was married to a gentleman of Brecknock, of the name of Prichard, I believe before Mr. Harris's death.

'There have been, within the recollection of persons residing at Talgarth, one hundred and forty efficient members of this extraordinary family, besides children: there are now not more than sixty; but the strict ritual of the place is still preserved; the character of industrious seclusion and eccentric fanaticism is sedulously maintained; and the visitor of Trevecca may see it now, as in the days of the founder. There is service in the house three times a day all the year round, the time of harvest not excepted: each person is allowed a certain proportion of absences, on the same plan as the attendance of chapel is regulated for the students in college, and if the number is exceeded, the offender loses the benefit of the institution, however reasonable may be his excuse, or urgent the plea of his necessity. The service, though so frequent, is very long; and a numerous attendance is, by these regulations, constantly secured. It were much to be wished, that it were better worth attending! I happened to arrive there, without any previous knowledge of the place or institution, about three o'clock on a Sunday, when a number of decently-dressed and well-behaved people were assembling; with whose manners

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on the outside of their chapel I was well pleased; but the inside exhibited such a melancholy exhibition of fanatical fatuity, as, happily for the honour of human intellect, is rarely to be met, but among these jumping enthusiasts. The speaker, for I will not insult the dignity of our establishment by considering him as a clergyman, had his face and head completely muffled with a red pocket hankerchief tied under his chin. The cause of this might have been candidly ascribed to the tooth-ach, had I not observed at Brecknock and elsewhere, that the preachers of these degradedly methodistical and jumping sects, which would not be worth noticing in a work of this kind, were they not the unhappy growth of the soil, uniformly array themselves in a similar paraphernalia, probably in an ostentatious shew of squalid piety. The rest of his apparel was consistently mean; and all his air and manner indicated the lowest ignorance, though I could not judge of his language. Its effects, however, atoned in power for what it might want in elegance, or the means of rational conviction. The groans of his hearers, sometimes in a solo part, and sometimes in chorus, corresponded with the scarcely human contortions and ejaculations of the preacher. Some stood, some knelt, and some were stretched upon the floor in prostrate humiliation. I did not, however, stay for the animating sound of "Glory to the Lamb," lest the forgetfulness of superstitious enthusiasm, violating the laws of hospitality, might have compelled me also to join in the fantastic rites of light-heeled devotion. But I will no longer weary the patience of my reader on the habits of an institution, which has culled, with scrupulous care, all the absurdities and evils of the monastic life, except the prohibition of marriage, and at the same time passed a severe edict of exclusion against all its learning and utility. Mr. Harris had a brother, who made a considerable fortune as an army taylor in London, which was, I believe, inherited by Mrs. Hughes, his niece, who has a very handsome mansion near Trevecca. The family are very much respected; and it is most unaccountable, that the zeal of a man, placed by birth and education in the most respectable class of society, should have degenerated into such unmeaning and irrational mummery. It is true, indeed, that the senatorial names of Wilberforce and Hill have graced the drivellings of pretended inspiration; but they have not condescended to countenance any thing quite so repugnant to common sense, or so irreconcileable with the classical taste and elegant attainments of a gentleman. Since my return, I have heard accounts of Mr. Harris, not so favourable to the disinterested absurdity of his character and views. I know the imputations under which leaders of sects and parties labour from the misconstructions of their opponents, and pretend not to decide. It is certain that he extorted large sums from the deluded people among whom he travelled, as well as from the labours of his domestic fraternity. These went in aid of the establishment at Trevecca. The frugality and self-denial of his habits is also controverted; and his taste in building, which speaks for itself, corroborates in some measure the suspicion. His doctrine throughout the principality was, that those who came with his credentials were sent

of God, and if they wanted a coat, a dinner, or a horse, the best in the possession of the believer was respectively to be furnished. But we are here at the very head quarters of methodism, the capital of its empire in the principality. At Tredustan, close by Treyecca, is a college founded by Lady Huntingdon, for educating young men, to continue the succession of the ministry. But it is at present untenanted by pupils, though there is occasional service there: I shall therefore gladly dismiss it, without inquiring into the nature of its ordinances, which probably coincide with those established elsewhere by the zealous patroness.'

As many of our readers may think with us that those travellers, who explore the more remote parts of our own country, merit attention, and claim support, as much as those who take laudable pains to bring us acquainted with distant regions, we propose to devote another article to this valuable and instructive work.

[*To be continued.*] Jo.

ART. III. *Minutes in Agriculture and Planting*, illustrated with Specimens of eight Sorts of the best, and two Sorts of the worst Natural Grasses, and with accurate Drawings and Descriptions of Practical Machines, on seven Copper-plates, whereby every Farmer will be made perfectly acquainted with the best natural and artificial Grasses, and not only be made acquainted with the Use of, but also be enabled to construct the above Machines. By William Amos, of Brothertoft, near Boston, Lincolnshire. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Lackington and Co. 1804.

BOTANY is an amusement which naturally presents itself to the intelligent farmer. A numerous family of plants courts his acquaintance, and an intimate knowlege of many of them is connected with his interest. He must be a stupid agriculturist who, passing his time among the beauties of the vegetable creation, can avoid being smitten with a desire to investigate the laws of this extensive kingdom of nature; or can refrain from wishing to mark its different subjects, and to arrange and classify its various tribes. Merely as a source of recreation, we discern something captivating in this study; and the utility which results from it is not inferior to the pleasure. When the farmer is in the habit of minutely examining and comparing the plants which he cultivates, he will observe a difference in their relative value, which will prompt a selection that ignorance would never have meditated. With respect to natural and artificial grasses, the variety is greater than is generally imagined; and a scientific study of them, as it leads us to mark their different characters, will enable us more easily to discriminate the most profitable from those of inferior utility. This subject,

subject, indeed, has already engaged considerable attention; and in proportion as the knowlege of grasses is extended among practical agriculturists, our pastures are likely to be improved. Mr. Amos, at the solicitation of many graziers, here throws in his mite towards the diffusion of this branch of botanical science; subjoining also plans for the improvement of machinery employed in the cultivation of the soil. On the former topic, he observes:

'Every husbandman ought to know how to suit his grain and plants to the quality of his soil, but few are acquainted with the nature and disposition of the best *artificial* and *natural grasses* that cover our arable and pasture fields. The surface of the earth is cloathed with a pleasing and wonderful variety of grasses. Some delight in a moist soil; others prefer a dry situation; and yet so little do we observe this order of nature, that grass seeds of all kinds, good and bad, are promiscuously sown upon the same soil.

'Of late there has been much encouragement given to the collecting of grasses by hand. It is here that the botanist becomes useful to the agriculturist. He knows from his kalendar of Flora, what grasses flower together, and what sort suits different soils, and if a mixture is required, can tell what kind of grass seeds will render that mixture beneficial. For this useful purpose some degree of botanical knowledge is necessary. Nature is ever constant and uniform. She points out to us the plants peculiar to every soil, if we could be prevailed upon to trace her along the walks which she delights to tread; and to welcome the grasses which she scatters over our best feeding pastures.

'It is not unusual, to see a piece of rich and ill-managed land over-run with the coarsest grasses. In that state, it cannot maintain a stock in proportion to the goodness of the soil. Other lands of a much worse quality, being laid down with a more judicious choice of seeds, are found to be infinitely more productive. This consideration ought to awaken the attention of the agriculturist to a more attentive choice of seeds in laying down his land to pasture.'

The work is divided into nine chapters, called *Dissertations*, several of which contain nothing more than an account of the construction and use of a Roller, of a Thistle-cutter, or of a Scuffle. Mr. Amos, however, commences with all the majesty and formality of a botanical lecturer; attempting an account of the structure and component principles of vegetables, in which he describes, with a minuteness which we dare not copy, their 'amatorial attachments,' declaims against equivocal generation, and pronounces the formation of stigmas and anthers to be 'the chef d'œuvre, the master-piece of nature.' Instead of following him through his detail of the different parts of fructification, we shall content ourselves with an extract respecting the anthera; in which a new explanation is given of

the cause of *smut*, and which, if true, should teach the farmers to reject the practice of *brining* their seed-wheat, especially now when salt is so very dear:

'The *anthera*, or summit, situated on the top of the filament, contains within it the pollen, and when come to maturity discharges the same, for the purpose of fertilizing, by the act of impregnation, the tender and concealed seed. Hence at the age of puberty the following phenomena take place. The antheræ, when mature, on a sudden break, and explode their pollen into the whole ambit of the flower. Wax is another secretion produced with the fecundating dust on the anthers of flowers, which in wet seasons it preserves from rain, to which it is impenetrable; for the farina, or fecundating dust of plants, is liable to swell if exposed to much moisture, and to burst its shell; and it either then becomes inert and ineffectual, or is washed away. Whence as wheat, rye, and many of the grasses, and plantain, lift up their anthers on long filaments, and thus expose the enclosed fecundating dust to be washed away by the rains; a scarcity of corn is produced in wet summers; to which the ustilago, or smut in wheat, have rationally been ascribed. Hence the necessity of a careful choice of seed-wheat; as that, which had not received the dust of the anthers, will not grow, though it may appear well to the eye.

'From these premises, the improvers of agriculture, and even the common practical farmer, may be able to deduce very useful consequences. If the farmer dreads heavy and sudden rains, immediately after he has sown his seed, he may, with equal reason, be afraid of them at the time his corn is in bloom. For, as the wet will injure him in one case by bursting the seed, so it will in the other by washing off the *farina*, or male dust, whereby an effectual impregnation will be prevented. The farmer will not then be surprized if his grain appears small and pined at the time of threshing, when he can so readily account for the cause in philosophic terms.'

The cause of smut may probably originate when the wheat is in bloom: but we do not perceive the useful consequences to be deduced from Mr. Amos's philosophy on this head. The farmer has nothing to do but to submit.

When Mr. Amos enters the province of Chemistry, to explain *the component principles of vegetables*, he goes beyond his depth, and asserts doctrines which are not only erroneous, but which contain the most palpable contradictions. Under the head of Resins, he says:

'All the resins appear to be nothing else but oils rendered concrete by their combination with oxygen. The exposure of these to the open air, and the decomposition of acids applied to them, evidently prove this conclusion.

'Resins in general are less sweet than the balsams. They afford more volatile oil, but no acid, by distillation.'

Here

Here it is obvious to remark, if Resins consist of nothing but oils (he should have said the *volatile* oils, for the fat oils will not make resins) combined with oxygen, is it not strange that they should yield no acid by distillation? Or, if they yield no acid by distillation, on what ground is it asserted, that oxygen is a chief part of their composition? The fact, however, is, that resins do yield an acid by distillation.

Leaving theory behind, we pass to the 2d Dissertation, 'On the Culture and Use of Nine of the best *Artificial* and of Eight of the best *Natural* Grasses,' in which the Farmer will find hints for practice. The eight artificial grasses recommended by Mr. Amos, are, 1. *Medicago sativa*, Purple Lucerne; 2. *Hedysarum Onobrychis*, Saintfoin; 3. *Sanguisorba officinalis*, Burnet; 4. *Trifolium pratense*, common red clover; 5. *Trifolium medium*, cow red clover; 6. *Trifolium repens*, white clover; 7. *Trifolium recumbens*, hop trefoil; 8. *Vicia sativa*, common purple flowered summer Vetch; 9. *Vicia Lathyroides*, purple-flowered wild vetch, or winter tare.

Of these two kinds of tares, Mr. Amos gives the botanical characters, and then adds, for the benefit of the unlearned:

'Notwithstanding the foregoing botanical description given of these two kinds of tares, yet many of my readers may be at a loss to distinguish either the seeds or the stems from one another. The seed of the winter tare is smaller, and darker coloured than the summer tare; but the greatest characteristic, to those who are not skilled in botany, is, the winter tare vegetates with a seed leaf of a fresh green colour, whereas the summer tare comes up with a grassy spear of a brown dusky hue.'

The natural grasses, here specified as the most valuable in our pastures, are, 1. *Anthoxanthum odoratum*, Sweat-scented vernal grass; 2. *Alopecurus pratensis*, Meadow Fox-tail grass; 3. *Poa pratensis*, Smooth-stalked Meadow grass; 4. *Poa trivialis*, Rough-stalked Meadow grass; 5. *Festuca ovina*, Sheep's Fescue grass; 6. *Festuca pratensis*, Meadow Fescue grass; 7. *Lolium perenne*, Darnel or Ray grass; 8. *Cynosurus critastus*, crested Dog's-tail.

It is observed on the *Festuca ovina*, that it is not intitled to the encomiums bestowed on it by some writers:

'In an experiment made upon all the grasses recommended here, which were sown each upon separate beds or plats upon a lightish dry soil, and grazed promiscuously with sheep; I found this grass was never so close fed down as the other seven. This grass delights most in dry pastures, and sunny hills, and is not productive.'

The *Holcus Lanatus*, or Meadow soft grass, is reprobated equally with the *Triticum repens*, or couch grass; and Mr. Amos expresses his concern at seeing it recommended in some

of

of the prize Essays communicated to the Board of Agriculture.

Drawings of the most valuable grasses are given, and actual specimens of the 10 above mentioned, *i. e.* the eight valuable and the two unproductive natural grasses. A catalogue of all the natural grasses, including the name of each genus, and the number of species in each genus, is also added, similar to that which was contained in the last volume of the Bath Society Papers. The total number is 112.

The remainder of the volume chiefly respects the construction of some farming implements to be employed in the destruction of weeds, a circumstance of no little importance in the cultivation of the soil. The machines here recommended, each of which is the subject of a separate dissertation, are a Sward Dresser—Thistle Cutter—Compound Roller—Tree Transplanter—Scuffle—Couch Grass Drag—and Couch Grass Rake. The plates and explanations afford a complete idea of each instrument, and we incline to believe that they will be found useful on trial: but we are sorry to observe Mr. Amos encouraging the absurd practice of transplanting large trees. Moy.

ART. IV. *Archæologia*; or, Miscellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquity: published by the Society of Antiquaries of London. Vol. XIV. 4to. pp. 311. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. White, &c.

No pursuit more readily admits of two opposite representations than the researches of the antiquary. They may, on the one hand, be considered as insignificant and useless, a proper subject of ridicule and burlesque; or they may, on the other, be regarded as ingenious and learned, not merely amusing but also contributing, in different ways, to general benefit and improvement. When Scriblerus insists that the back of an old sconce, with its deformed and decayed appearance, is a Grecian shield with its venerable and precious rust, on which his son shall be presented to baptism, we justly exclaim with the poet—"*risum teneatis, amici?*" Many are the instances in which such a kind of address may be employed, and many also are the occasions on which we may use very different language. If we find that these inquiries and discoveries are wisely and judiciously applied,—if they support and confirm historical relations,—if they elucidate what was obscure and strengthen what was uncertain,—if they acquaint us with antient customs,—and if they set before us the gradual improvement of the arts, the slow but sure advances of time, in the conveniencies and the utilities which our present state requires,—in such and

other

other respects, they prove pleasing and beneficial, and instead of censuring, we may justly say, "*Plaudite, amici.*"

Some relics have been so often found, and are so similar, that they become of little importance: unless some value may attach to them from the immediate spot, or particular situation, in which they are deposited. Of this remark, the article with which the present volume opens, appears to be an illustration: it is the '*Account of a Burial-urn, discovered at Colney in Norfolk, in a Letter from the Rev.* William Gibson, *M.A. & F.A.S.*'—It offers nothing particularly worthy of attention; although, as we have just hinted, farther investigation may lead to circumstances and connections, which may render it more deserving of record.—The subject which immediately follows may possibly attract greater regard; to some readers the very name will be new, and at first unintelligible, yet soon explained: '*Remarks on a Gimmal Ring, by* Robert Smith, *Esq. F.R.S. & F.A.S.*'—This curious gimmal or gimmow ring was dug up in the year 1800, in premises belonging to George Shepley, Esq. at Horsley-down, Surrey, eight or nine feet below the surface of the earth, where it appears to have lain undisturbed for a considerable length of time. 'It is constructed, as the name imports, of twin or double hoops, which play one within another like the links of a chain. Each hoop has one of its sides flat, the other convex; each is twisted once round, and each surmounted by a hand, issuing from an embossed fancy-work wrist or sleeve, the hand rising somewhat above the circle, and extending in the same direction. The course of the twist in each hoop is made to correspond with that of its counterpart, so that on bringing together the flat surfaces of the hoops, the latter immediately unite in one ring.'—The whole device is supposed to present a triple emblem of love, fidelity, and union: a motto appears, "*Use de vertu,*" and also the figures 990, which may be conjectured to be the date. It seems to have been a bridal ring, the design of which we owe to the ingenious fancies of our Gallic neighbours. It is farther and prettily illustrated in this short dissertation: but for other observations on this piece of *jointed work*, or *machina quædam*, we are obliged to refer our readers to the volume.

Observations on an Antient Symbol of Macedon, in a Letter from Taylor Combe, *Esq. F.A.S.*—This kind of figures representing antient countries is said to be very rare; and no existing symbol of Macedon, 'a goat with one horn,' seems yet to have been noticed. Mr. Combe has fortunately procured one in bronze, dug up in Asia Minor, and brought with other antiquities to this country by a poor Turk. After various quotations

tions from Justin and Xenophon, it is observed that, on one of the pilasters of Persepolis, a goat is represented with an immense horn, which is held by a man in a Persian dress; and which is, not without reason, conjectured to signify the subjection of Macedon to Persia, which took place about 547 years before Christ. The capture of the horns undoubtedly prefigures conquest, and it has not been unusual to represent the power of a country by an *horned* animal. Persia was exhibited by a ram; on which Mr. Combe remarks, 'The relation of these emblems to Macedon and Persia is strongly confirmed by a vision in the eighth chapter of the prophesy of Daniel *, which, while it explains the specimens of antiquity before us, receives itself, in return, no inconsiderable share of illustration.' We lament with the writer, that this bronze animal, which is said to be of superior workmanship, should have come into his hands in so mutilated a state;—it makes a good figure in the engraving. Whether we should lament that it is a she-goat, while that mentioned by the prophet is stated to be a male, we cannot so certainly say. Mr. Combe considers it as a variation of little moment; nay, he regards it as favourable; and he observes, 'the figure was probably done in the reign of Alexander the Great, when, it is well known, the kingdom had reached its fullest splendour; for at no time can it be said, that the country was more productive in arts or learning, or that its empire was more extensive.'

Explanation of a Carving over a Chimney-Piece at Speke Hall, Lancashire, by Henry John Hinchcliffe, *Esq. F.A.S.*—This carving, which represents the pedigree of the Norris family, seems to have been finished in the year 1564, and was executed in a neat and pleasing style. Part of the inscription is wholly defaced, and the remainder is sinking into decay: but it may be deemed curious, as it affords a specimen of the taste of this country soon after the introduction of the Italian architecture, and at least a part of it seems by no means wanting in intrinsic merit. The house was last sold to the late Richard Watt, Esq.

Some Antiquities discovered at Topesfield in Essex, A.D. 1800, are described by Thomas Walford, Esq. F.A.S.—They are, a sword-blade, much corroded, and broken in two or three places;—a metal vase and patera, dissimilar from what have been before presented to the Society's inspection;—and some little elegant cups of Samian ware, one with an ornamented border, the uses of which have not yet been ascertained, but

* Ver. 3. &c.——Ver. 20. &c.

which might, perhaps, be employed in funeral obsequies.—Mr. Walford is anxious to obtain some explication of these Roman curiosities.

The Copy of an Original Proclamation of Queen Elizabeth, concerning the Scarcity of Grain, &c., requires no particular notice from us; its provisions may, perhaps, be thought to suit iniquitous and oppressive times. It is said to be communicated by Francis Douce, Esq. F.A.S.

In a *Vindication of the Arundelian Marbles*, by Stephen Weston, B.D. F.R.S. & F.A.S. at the same time that he pleads for the authenticity of the first, and obviates the objections that have been raised against it, he likewise produces arguments apparently unanswerable in favour of the second; which contains a decree of the people of Smyrna, inviting the Magnesians to unite with them, in some projects for national safety and honour; and with which proposals the Magnesians readily complied. Selden has remarked, *altum est apud scriptores silentium:* but there is no improbability that such a league was made; and where there is so little ground for suspicion of forgery, the Parian Marble is abundantly sufficient; yet, observes Mr. Weston, 'it will be an agreeable increase of testimony, and an elegant corroboration of the fact in question, to be told that a municipal coin of Smyrna exists, struck at the time, and on the occasion.' Though an indescribable and inexhaustible fund of artifice and fraud is attached to this subject, we will by no means dispute whether 'the original coin, in this writer's collection,' be genuine or not.

The Rev. Peter Rashleigh, in a letter to Sir Joseph Banks, describes *two Urns discovered at Southfleet, Kent*: the one of strong and red pottery, of very rude form, able to contain twenty gallons, and bearing an appearance of great antiquity; the other, materially different, smaller, and of thinner pottery. Respecting the first, it is remarkable, though it does not seem to lead to any instructive inference, that one of a similar kind was found at Crundal in this county, in a street bearing the name of *Sole* street; and this urn, which is now described, lay buried in a field called *Sole* field. These urns led the writer to a tomb of stone, which contained two leaden coffins, each having the bones of a skeleton, perfect, conjectured to be those of children, of seven or eight years of age. In one coffin, a skeleton only was found; in the other, a very handsome gold chain, resembling a watch chain, ornamented with angular pieces of a bluish green stone or composition, having also had pearls, which time has nearly destroyed. It appears to have been a necklace. Also, two bracelets of gold, with serpents'

heads

heads at the junction, together with a small gold ring inclosing a jacinth; without any letters or initials by which the date, &c. might be ascertained, or who were the people interred. It is rather surprizing that the learned Society does not sometimes offer a few remarks, or afford some small information, on these topics.

The following Number contains observations on the remains of a *Stone Cross* or *Pillar, at Hemsby, in the Hundred of West Flegg, Norfolk*, with conjectures respecting its antient designation and use. This ingenious dissertation is written by the Rev. William Gibson, A.M. The pillar is distinguished by having the symbols of the four Evangelists sculptured on it. Mr. Gibson's industrious research has discovered three others; and he concludes that they were destined to mark the limit of the sanctuary, or privileged space of refuge appertaining to the church of Hemsby. He finishes his letter in these modest terms, which recommend it to regard — 'Thinking that I discerned the veritable traces of an antient usage and establishment, I was desirous to submit my thoughts, and the foundations of them, to the Society of Antiquaries; confessedly rather as a matter of curiosity than of use; trusting, in the mean time, that should my opinions on the subject appear to be erroneous, or lightly taken up, they will at least be heard with candour, and, in a case where error cannot conduct to injury, the intention will be approved, even though the execution of it should be ineffectual either to convince or please.'

Account of a Brick, brought from the Scite of Ancient Babylon, in a Letter from Nathaniel Hulme, M.D. F.R.S. & F.A.S.—This brick or tyle was sent to England in 1801, from Bombay; where it appears to be a fact well known that it came from Babylon, although this is not sufficiently ascertained in the present paper. It is large and weighty, containing upwards of thirty-eight pounds avoirdupois: in the middle, is a square impression, presenting an aukward figure of a lion, with an inscription in large characters, but unintelligible, though attention has not been wanting in order to explain them. Dr. Hulme has carefully analysed the composition both of the brick and of its *cement*; and he infers that it is formed of pure clay, and not of slime or mud; that it has not been burnt in the fire; and that it is of great antiquity, since otherwise the yellow colour could not have been so thoroughly changed into a light stone colour. As to the *cement*, which he terms *ασφαλτος*, he expresses his wish that it might be made an article of commerce in this country; because 'from its peculiar smell and great activity on the senses,' he apprehends 'that it would become a sove-

reign external remedy in various obstinate diseases of the skin. We ought not to omit some notice of the Doctor's reflection on Chaldæan architecture; when he, with so much propriety, remarks that the great breadth, thickness, and weight of each brick, prepared by the mere heat of the sun, together with the great quantity of cement which presents itself, lead us to conclude that the Babylonians could erect immense structures, in a very short time, and at a very moderate expence Hence we can more readily account for the prodigious walls, and the vast and magnificent works displayed in and about the city of Babylon.

Another letter from Mr. Walford occupies several pages, in describing *a Roman Military Way in Essex*, and relating many antiquities found near it. A Roman villa is one of the first objects that is examined, which is said to resemble discoveries made in Nottinghamshire some years ago *: but however curious and attractive these inquiries may be, they afford little satisfaction. We hear of the portico, the crypto-portico, the hypocaust, tesselated pavements, &c., yet our knowlege of these antient habitations seems to be very incomplete. Many fragments of earthen ware, some of dark colour, others white, others of the beautiful Samian red, and several of them ornamented, are here collected; as also many fragments of glass, which had *evidently been used in the windows*. We are told of a similar discovery in the ruins of Herculaneum: but we feel much at a loss on this subject, and uncertain whether the crystal employed in windows was talc, produced in the earth, or glass, which is known to be artificial and manufactured. Several fibulæ, relicts of brass wire, buckles, two ivory-styles, &c. were also brought to light; and what is far more valued, (A.D. 1788.) coins of silver and of gold, particularly on one spot near Haverhill, in which a great number were collected, said to be in good preservation, and, according to Camden's rules, thought to be British, worth sixteen shillings each, being of gold. Urns and skeletons may be conceived to abound; and in one of these departments was revealed the largest and most curious glass urn ever found in Britain, which has been supposed by some to have contained the ashes of Ostorius, from the field adjoining being called Osterfield, now corrupted to Nosterfield. This urn is sufficiently large to contain two gallons, wine measure; three parts of it, when found, were filled with small pieces of burnt bones, on which was placed a lachrymatory. These discoveries, Mr. Walford concludes, prove beyond a doubt that the Roman military way from Camulodunum (whe-

* Archæologia, Vol. viii. p. 363.

the:

ther Colchester or Malden) passed through the adjoining villages which are here mentioned; and this, he thinks, will receive still farther proof from examining other places which have as yet been but partially explored.

No. 12. contains *a Letter from Charles II. to Colonel Thomas Veel*, with blank commissions, to raise troops for his service. This letter and the commissions are dated from Antwerp and from Bruges, A.D. 1658, and 1659: they are much valued by William Veel, Esq. a descendant in the fourth generation; who regards them as respectable memorials, honourable to his family: but they are not of much consequence to the public.

Sir H. C. Englefield, Bart., F.R.S. & V.P. A.S. produces an account of *a Building in a narrow Street in Southampton.* Its very confined situation has probably hitherto prevented the notice of the curious; the lane in which it stands being barely wide enough to admit a cart. It is now, we are told, converted into stables below, and hay-lofts above, and of so difficult and dirty access, that it is not an easy matter to take either measures or drawings of it: but we find three engravings attending this article. It must be observed, concerning the drawings, which are numerous in the present volume, though we have not distinctly marked them, that they appear to be executed with great attention and precision, so as to become an instructive as well as a striking and beautiful part of the work; and the same, we are willing to conclude, may be said of the measures, although we have occasionally had some doubts as to the references by letters and figures. The building in question does not seem to have been constructed for religious purposes, nor for those of defence; and the Baronet rather inclines to give it the name of a palace, —to which the part now remaining might possibly be designed for a hall of audience, or for some such purpose.

Antiquities found in Somersetshire, A.D. 1800, employ the pen of Ch. J. Harford, Esq. This is indeed a large collection, and most of them are pronounced to be perfectly unknown. A farmer's servant ploughing the top of Polden Hill, near Bridgwater, perceived the furrow become very irregular, and that the plough-share was clogged with several rings, which were the occasion of its being thrown out of the proper track. He concluded that these were the fetters of some prisoner escaped from gaol; and on this supposition he traced back the ground, expecting to find a file or saw: but he was surprized to pick up several scattered pieces of metal, and soon discovered the spot where he had struck into them; whence he took what remained. They were all deposited in a heap in one place. Luckily, he had the good sense not to destroy or

mutilate them; and the gentleman, by whom they were purchased, has permitted their exhibition to the Society. Though the collection is curious, and of a kind rather uncommon, this learned body has not favoured the public with any remarks concerning them.

Antiquities discovered on the Quantock Hills, Somersetshire, A. D. 1794, also communicated by Charles Joseph Harford, Esq. Stapleton, Gloucestershire.—Two celts and one ring, which proved to be a torques, (a collar or chain) are the articles here produced; the latter, it is well known, have been found of gold: but, in the present case, both are composed of brass, intermixed with some other substance, which is probably *tin*. As to celts, here not improperly styled the *ignis fatuus* of antiquaries, they were stone hatchets, spades, axes, &c. of our rude ancestors, as they have been of most savage nations: when they are of metal, it may be concluded that they were imported from other countries.

Moulds for casting Roman Coins, found at or near Edington, Somersetshire.—The Rev. J. Pool took a hint from a passage in Camden's Britannia, and, with a party of friends, having resorted to the place above mentioned, they were directed to a spot on which in less than an hour they picked up several hundreds of these moulds. Among other remarks, the great object of this paper is to shew that such moulds were the instruments of illegal coiners. Mr. P. not only found, as was formerly done at Lyons, a lump of metal, but likewise, in one instance, the very coin itself, lodged in its mould, and formed like the lump, of a white metal resembling silver; which, on examination, proves to be principally *tin*. They lay in great numbers, bearing date from the reign of the emperor Severus down to the times of Maximin, Maximus, Julia Mamæa, &c. 'in such perfect order as to admit of good casts being made of them in sulphur coloured with vermilion.'

A Description of the Prior's Chapel at Ely is written by W. Wilkins, jun., Esq.—A few remarks are here offered on the *Gothic* or *Saracenic* style of architecture, neither of which terms Mr. W. seems heartily to approve; and he rather regards what is thus denominated as a refinement on the Norman taste and method of structure; which seems not improbable. The chapel in question, small but elegant, is said to have been founded by John de Crauden, about the year 1301, and is now converted into a dwelling-house: farther particulars are given in the paper, which is accompanied by six engravings.

Bridekirk Font, with the Runic Column at Bewcastle, in Cumberland, is described, with suitable observations, by Henry Howard,

Howard, Esq.—The inscription is deemed to be Saxo-Runic, and is interpreted as follows: 'Here Ekard was converted, and to this man's example were Danish men brought.'—As the Runic lines are in *rhime*, the translator should have been careful to verify them in English.—In the reign of Athelstan, son of Alfred, we are told that Eric, a prince of Norway, proved a very troublesome neighbour, but, on offering to him the feudatory kingdom of Northumberland, he became more tractable; and as a customary and requisite part of the agreement at that time formed, he embraced Christianity, and received at this font a baptism. We still need an explanation of the aukward sculpture on its four sides, of which we have here the engravings, as also of the several Runic lines on the column mentioned above; which appear, in both instances, to have been copied with great care.

Remarks on the Military History of Bristol, in the Seventeenth Century, with a Sketch of the Outworks, by Edmund Turnor, Esq., F.R.S. & F.S.A.—This gentleman's ancestor, of the same name with himself, was appointed treasurer of Bristol, by letters patent of Charles I. here exhibited. It is not practicable for us to abridge the article, nor is it requisite: we therefore only observe that the 'sketch of the outworks of Bristol, in 1644,' seems well executed.

The paper which follows is short, but ingenious, learned, and apparently satisfactory. Mr. Stephen Weston here attempts to explain *an unpublished Phœnician Coin*, which has a head of Hercules on one side, with a club behind the head, and on the other a sea-horse, with three Phœnician letters,—an *aleph*, a *nun*, and a *thau*,—making together the word *anath*, signifying *commoratio, habitatio, domicilium*; a description that might suit any fixed abode on immoveable foundations, any *rupem immotam*, as Tyre is said to have been, as also renowned for the worship of Hercules. Mr. Weston deems it unnecessary to enter into these proofs; and he produces another, which, he thinks, establishes them all. 'The historian of Alexander, Arrian, as quoted by Stephanus Byzantius, tells us that Tyre was called Ἄναθα, though perhaps neither Stephanus, nor Arrian knew why:—they have, however, mentioned the fact, which explains the inscription on the coin in question, and shews the place to which it belongs, and probably that it is prior to both the æras of Tyre, that is, to the æra of Seleucus, and its own municipal æra.'—Other remarks occur, not unworthy of the reader's regard.

We can take but short notice of the two following papers, the one by J. Latham, M.D., the other by Sir Henry Engle-

field, Bart. They relate to two pieces of rude sculpture in the Abbey church of Romsey; and all that can be said at present is, that they bear characters of very high antiquity.

Observations on some of the Tombs in the Abbey Church at Tewkesbury, by Samuel Lysons, *Esq.—Copy of a Charter of Inspeximus remaining among the records in the Tower of London, and reciting a Charter of King Edgar, respecting the foundation and the property of the Abbey of Ramesey in Huntingdonshire; communicated by* William Walcot, *Esq.—Observations on the Anachronisms and Inaccuracies of our Writers, respecting the times of the assembling of Parliaments, and the dates of Treaties, Grants, Charters, and other Instruments, as well public as private, by* Thomas Astle, Esq.—These articles do not solicit our attention, except the last, which was written by a gentleman justly respected for exactness and fidelity, now no more. The subject here canvassed is of no mean import;—it is indeed of considerable weight, and we hope that Mr. Astle's acute and sensible memorandums will be productive of much utility.

We next arrive at two dissertations, as they may not improperly be denominated, by Sharon Turner, Esq., F.A.S. of which the subject is, *An Inquiry respecting the early Use of Rhime.* They bring to our recollection what Mr. Harris long ago said, if we mistake not, concerning his volume on a similar subject, that it introduced his readers to company of a rank not generally or but little known. We agree with Mr. T. that there is no necessity for travelling to Arabia for the original of *rhiming* poetry; since *rhime*, it is probable, was an appendage to the vernacular language of the antient nations of Europe as well as those of India, Arabia, and China. It is not wonderful that, even in rude and illiterate times, words should fall into some kind both of metre and of rhime: but it has occurred to this gentleman to inquire, as a matter of curiosity, whether the latter was known and employed by the Greeks and Romans. We cannot easily ascertain this point. The Ομοιοτελευτον, or *similiter desinens*, was not unknown to, nor wholly neglected, either by the Grecians or the Latins; and it appears to be intimated by Quintilian that Isocrates and Cicero were pleased with these syllabic beauties. Mr. T. also remarks that they are not unacceptable, if not too frequent; and that Cicero gave dignity to these trifles by the weight of his matter. Yet, though rhiming appears natural to all languages, and no doubt was in very early times employed by all people, we find it difficult to admit, among polished writers, the intentional mixture of rhime with prose; and as to some examples of this kind, we rather incline, with Muratori, not to lay much stress on the quotations produced;

since

since these instances may have been casual. Even respecting verse, the similar sound, whether in the middle or at the end of lines, appears often rather imaginary than real. Mr. Turner displays learning and ingenuity, which qualify him for the present debate: his manner is agreeable; he appears to search for truth; and he is modest, as men of inquiry will generally be, when he thinks that it is attained.

[*To be continued.*] Hi.

ART. V. *Asiatic Researches, Vols. VI. and VII.*

[*Article concluded from p.* 271.]

WE proceed to notice those few papers which our want of room obliged us to omit in our former Number.

An Account of the Inhabitants of the Poggy, lying off Sumatra. By John Crisp, Esq.—Mr. C. observes that 'the *Nassau* or *Poggy* islands form a part of a chain of islands which lie off the whole length of the west coast of *Sumatra*, at the distance of twenty to thirty leagues; the northern extremity of the northern *Poggy* lies in latitude 2° 18′ S., and the southern extremity of the southern island in latitude 3° 16′ S. The two are separated from each other by a very narrow passage called the strait of *See Cockup*, in latitude 2° 40′ S. and longitude about 100° 38′ east from Greenwich.'—The number of inhabitants in these islands amounts to no more than 1400; and Mr. Crisp, who staid about a month among them, carefully collected many particulars respecting their language, customs, and manners, which he has detailed in the paper before us. Though apprehensive that his account might be deemed, on the whole, trivial by some readers, he ventures to advert to one circumstance relative to this people, which may be considered as a curious fact in the history:

'From the proximity of the islands to *Sumatra*, which, in respect to them, may be considered as a continent, we should naturally expect to find their inhabitants to be be a set of people originally derived from the *Sumatra* stock, and look for some affinity in their language and manners; but, to our no small surprize, we find a race of men, whose language is totally different, and whose customs and habits of life indicate a very distinct origin, and bear a striking resemblance to those of the inhabitants of the late discovered islands in the great Pacifick Ocean.'

After having first noticed the very safe riding for ships of any size in the straits, which have no other defect as a harbour than the depth of the water (25 fathoms close in shore,), Mr.

Crisp describes the face of the country, and its vegetable and animal productions:

'The mountains (says he) are covered with trees to their summits, among which are found species of excellent timber; the tree, called by the *Malays*, *Bintangoor*, and which, on the other *India* is called *Pohoon*, abounds here. Of this tree are made masts, and some are found of sufficient dimensions for the lower mast of a first rate ship of war. During my stay here I did not discover a single plant which we have not on *Sumatra*. The sago tree growing in plenty, and constitutes the chief article of food to the inhabitants, who do not cultivate rice; the cocoa-nut tree and the bamboo, two most useful plants, are found here in great plenty. They have a variety of fruits, common in these climates, such as man-gosteens, pine apples, plaintains, *Buah*, *Chupah*, &c. The woods, in their present state, are impervious to man; the species of wild animals which inhabit them are but few; the large red deer, some hogs, and several kinds of monkeys are to be found here, but neither buffaloes, nor goats; nor are these forests infested, like those of *Sumatra*, with tigers or any other beast of prey. Of domestic poultry, there is only the common fowl, which probably has been originally brought from *Sumatra*: but pork and fish constitute the favourite animal food of the natives. Fish are found here in considerable plenty, and very good.'

The stature of the inhabitants of these islands seldom exceeds five feet and a half; their colour is like that of the Malays; they practise *tattooing*, and file their teeth to a point; and though of a mild disposition, they have some of the filthy customs of savages, particularly that of picking vermin from their heads and eating them.

One paragraph is devoted to their religion, which we shall transcribe:

'The religion of this people, if it can be said that they have any, may truly be called the religion of nature. A belief of the existence of some powers more than human cannot fail to be excited among the most uncultivated of mankind, from the observations of various striking natural phænomena, such as the diurnal revolution of the sun and moon; thunder and lightning; earthquakes, &c. &c. nor will there ever be wanting among them some, of superior talents and cunning, who will acquire an influence over weak minds, by assuming to themselves an interest with, or a power of controuling those super-human agents; and such notions constitute the religion of the inhabitants of the *Poggys*. Sometimes a fowl, and sometimes a hog, is sacrificed to avert sickness; to appease the wrath of the offended power, or to render it propitious to some projected enterprize; and Mr. Best was informed that omens of good or ill fortune were drawn from certain appearances in the entrails of the victim. But they have no form of religious worship, nor do they appear to have the most distant idea of a future state of rewards and punishments. They do not practise circumcision.'

Their

Their mode of *tattooing*, as well as the treatment of their dead, is represented to be very similar to the practices of the *Otaheiteans*.

A plate is subjoined, in which are exhibited the figures of the inhabitants; and a specimen of their language is added at the end of the memoir.

On the Poison of Serpents. By W. Boag, Esq.—It is of great importance, especially in the East Indies, where serpents abound whose bite is generally fatal, to ascertain the nature of their poison, the mode of its operation on the system, and the best method of resisting its destructive effects. Mr. Boag has, in this view, furnished an interesting paper, which contains some philosophical observations: but the experiments, which he made on the canine race, seem to afford his theory no very strong support. Though of the two hundred and ten different kinds of snakes, which Linné has enumerated, only about one in ten is poisonous, yet, as one kind cannot be easily distinguished from another by its appearance, no practical confidence ought to be hazarded on any general description. It is of importance, however, to know that the nature of the venom is the same in all the poisonous class; that its operation is immediately on the blood; and that, through this medium, it destroys the irritability of the muscular fibres, and thus produces death. Mr. Boag does not attempt to decide on the peculiar quality of the venom: but he conjectures, on observing the blood of those animals who have died of the bite, that the poison of serpents acts on the blood by attracting the oxygen, which it receives from the atmosphere in its passage through the lungs, and on which its vitality depends. 'The venom (he tells us) is inodorous and insipid, contrary to the opinion of Dr. Mead, it is neither sharp nor fiery, for it has scarcely any perceptible taste; it has the appearance and sensible properties of an animal mucus, but this mucus is evidently the vehicle of some very active matter.—If two or three drops of this venom be mixed with forty or fifty drops of blood, it immediately loses its vermilion colour, becomes black, and incapable of coagulation.' This fact appears to suggest a method of curing the disease. Supposing the fatal effect to be produced by the sudden subtraction of oxygen from the blood, this gentleman recommends, by way of antidote, the employment of those substances which contain oxygen in the greatest abundance, and part with it with the greatest facility; and, as lunar caustic possesses these properties in a singular degree, he concludes that no medicine is better calculated to resist the effects of the poison of serpents. He remarks that 'whenever a person

son is bitten by a serpent, and danger is apprehended, every means should be employed which human ingenuity has discovered, of speedily oxygenating the system:

'A ligature should, as soon as possible, be tied above the part bitten, so as to impede, but not entirely to stop the circulation of the blood, for the bite of a serpent is for the most part superficial, and the poison is carried into circulation by the smaller vessels, on the surface. The wound should next be scarified, and washed with a solution of the lunar caustic in water: I would prefer, for this purpose, a weak solution, because it may be used more freely, and frequently repeated. The same medicine should also be given internally, and repeated at intervals, as circumstances might point out.'

The warm bath, acidulated with the nitric acid, is also recommended.

A supplement contains an account of various experiments made with a large *Cobra de Capello* (*Coluber Naja*, LIN.) considered to be the most venomous of all serpents, who was allowed to bite several dogs and puppies in the leg and ear: but, though the lunar caustic was copiously applied, death invariably followed the bite, and in a short time. Indeed, Mr. Boag expresses his entire conviction that 'the poison of this kind of serpent, when it is in full vigour, is so certainly and rapidly destructive, at least to small animals, that neither the lunar caustic, nor probably any other remedy, would arrest its progress.'

We should be happy to hear that Mr. Boag could produce one instance of better success with his oxygenizing process on the larger animal, man, when unfortunately bitten by a *Cobra de Capello*: but we advise no human being to submit, for the sake of the experiment, to take the place of one of Mr. Boag's puppies.

An Account of the Petroleum Wells in the BURMHA *Dominions, extracted from the Journal of a Voyage from Ranghong up the River Erai-Wuddey to Amarapoorah, the present Capital of the Burmha Empire.* By Captain Hiram Cox, resident at Ranghong.—The object of this memoir is to explain the circumstances attending those singular wells in a certain district of the Burmha Empire, which produce, in great abundance, a genuine petroleum or fossil oil, possessing all the properties of coal-tar. In the vicinity of *Rainanghong*, are more than 500 of these wells, which are sunk to a considerable depth through the following strata:

'First, a light sandy loam intermixed with fragments of quartz, silex, &c.; second, a friable sand stone, easily wrought with thin horizontal strata of a concrete of martial ore, talc and indurated argill (the talc has this singularity, it is denticulated, its lamina being perpendicular

pendicular to the horizontal lamina of the argill on which it is seated) at from ten or fifteen feet from the surface, and from each other, as there are several of these veins in the great body of free stone. Thirdly, at seventy cubits, more or less, from the surface, and immediately below the free stone, a pale blue argillaceous earth (shistous) impregnated with the petroleum and smelling strongly of it. This they say is very difficult to work, and grows harder as they get deeper, ending in shist or slate, such as found covering veins of coal in *Europe*, &c. Below this shist, at the depth of about 130 cubits; is coal. I procured some, intermixed with sulphur and pyrites, which had been taken from a well, deepened a few days before my arrival, but deemed amongst them a rarity, the oil in general flowing at a smaller depth. They were piercing a new well when I was there, had got to the depth of eighty cubits, and expected oil at ten or twenty cubits more.'

Captain Cox thus explains the process of raising the oil, and the uses to which it is commonly applied:

'The machinery used in drawing up the rubbish, and afterwards the oil from the well, is an axle crossing the center of the well, resting on two rude-forked staunchions, with a revolving barrel on its center, like the nave of a wheel, in which is a score for receiving the draw rope; the bucket is of wicker work, covered with *dammer*, and the labour of the drawers, in general three men, is facilitated by the descent of the inclined plane, as water is drawn from deep wells in the interior of *Hindostan*.

'To receive the oil, one man is stationed at the brink of the well, who empties the bucket into a channel made on the surface of the earth leading to a sunk jar, from whence it is laded into smaller ones, and immediately carried down to the river, either by coolies, or on hackeries.

'When a well grows dry, they deepen it. They say none are abandoned for barrenness. Even the death of a miner, from mephitic air, does not deter others from persisting in deepening them when dry. Two days before my arrival, a man was suffocated in one of the wells, yet they afterwards renewed their attempts, without further accident. I recommended their trying the air with a candle, &c. but seemingly with little effect.

'The oil is drawn pure from the wells, in the liquid state as used, without variation, but in the cold season it congeals in the open air, and always loses something of its fluidity; the temperature of the wells preserving it in a liquid state fit to be drawn. A man who was lowered into a well of 110 cubits, in my presence, and immediately drawn up, perspired copiously at every pore: unfortunately I had no other means of trying the temperature. The oil is of a dingy green and odorous; it is used for lamps, and boiled with a little dammer, (a resin of the country,) for paying the timbers of houses, and the bottoms of boats, &c. which it preserves from decay and vermin; its medicinal properties, known to the natives, is as a lotion in cutaneous eruptions, and as an embrocation in bruises and rheumatic affections.'

It is farther remarked that, taking 'the average produce of each well per day, 300 viss, or 109,500 viss per annum, equal to

to 399,675 lbs. avoirdupois, or 178 tons, 955 lbs. or in liquid measure 793 hogsheads of sixty-three gallons each; as there are 520 wells registered by government, the gross amount produce of the whole per annum will be 56,940,000 viss, or 92,781 tons, 1560 lbs. or 412,360 hogsheads.'

The king has a tithe of the oil produced by these wells.

Narrative of a Journey to Sirinagur. By Captain Thomas Hardwicke.—In this journal, the scenery of the regions visited, the fossil and vegetable productions, and the habitations, customs, and manners of the inhabitants, are particularly noticed. As a general picture of the face and state of the country, Capt. H. gives this short sketch:

'From the ghaut of *Coadwára* to *Sirinagur*, is an assemblage of hills, jumbled together in many forms and directions, sometimes in chains, lying parallel to each other, but of no great extent, and often connected at their termination, by narrow ridges, running at right angles across the vallies between. The summits of all are very narrow, and of various shapes, and the distances between each range short, consequently the vallies much confined; and a late traveller justly observes, "Not a spot is to be seen that would afford room to accommodate one thousand men in tents."

'Some of these ranges are covered with forests, and are always green, some are naked and stony, neither affording shelter to the birds of the air, nor the beasts of the field. The number in cultivation form the smallest part, but so few traces of either houses or inhabitants are to be seen, that to sum up the whole in one general conclusion, depopulation and poverty are striking features throughout, and a greater share of the country seems in the undisturbed possession of the birds and beasts of the forests, than appropriated to the residence of man.'

Several curious circumstances are related in this narrative: but the most singular is that which occurred on a consecrated spot on the banks of the Ganges, where great numbers of persons had assembled for the purpose of performing their ablutions. A *Mela*, or fair, is the result of this vast concourse, of which the traveller has afforded an amusing account:

'This *Mela*, or fair, is an annual assemblage of *Hindus*, to bathe, for a certain number of days, in the waters of the *Ganges*, at this consecrated spot. The period of ablution is that of the sun's entering Aries; which, according to the *Hindu* computation, being reckoned from a fixed point, now happens about twenty days later than the vernal equinox. It accordingly fell on the evening of the 8th of *April*. But every twelfth year, when Jupiter is in Aquarius, at the time of the sun's entering Aries, the concourse of people is greatly augmented. The present is one of those periods, and the multitude collected here, on this occasion, may, I think, with moderation, be computed

at two and a half millions of souls*. Although the performance of a religious duty is their primary object, yet, many avail themselves of the occasion, to transact business, and carry on an extensive annual commerce. In this concourse of nations, it is a matter of no small amusement to a curious observer, to trace the dress, features, manners, &c. which characterize the people of the different countries of *Cabal, Cashmir, Lahore, Butaan, Sirinagur, Cummow*, and the plains of *Hindustan*. From some of these very distant countries, whole families, men, women, and children, undertake the journey, some travelling on foot, some on horseback, and many, particularly women and children, in long heavy carts, railed, and covered with sloping matted roofs, to defend them against the sun and wet weather: and during the continuance of the fair, these serve also as habitations.

'Among the natives of countries so distant from all intercourse with people of our colour, it is natural to suppose that the faces, dress, and equipage of the gentlemen who were then at *Hurdwar*, were looked upon by many as objects of great curiosity: indeed it exceeded all my ideas before on the subject, and as often as we passed through the crowd in our palanquins, we were followed by numbers, of both women and men, eager to keep pace, and admiring, with evident astonishment, every thing which met their eyes. Elderly women, in particular, salaamed with the greatest reverence; many shewed an eagerness to touch some part of our dress; which being permitted, they generally retired with a salaam, and apparently much satisfied.'

Between the various sects of the Hindus which were assembled on this occasion, a contest for superiority soon arose; and, like other sects, they were not restrained either by piety or by superstition, from appealing to the sword, and staining the consecrated spot with blood. Thus the love of power and pre-eminence, even among devotees, generally surpasses the love of God.

Prudently conceiving that the mention of each plant, as it presented itself to the traveller's notice, would interrupt the narrative, Capt. Cox has subjoined an Appendix, in which he enumerates and describes the different objects of the vegetable kingdom that occurred in the course of his tour, between Hurdwar and Sirinagur, in the months of April and May 1796.

Hardwicke

'* This estimation may appear enormous; and it therefore becomes necessary to give some account of the grounds on which it was formed. Small sums are paid by all, at the different watering places; and the collectors, at each of these, in rendering their accounts to the *Mehunts*, who regulate the police, are obliged to form as exact a register, as a place of so much bustle will admit of. From the principal of these offices, the number of the multitude is found out, probably within a few thousands. The *Goosseyn*, on whose information the calculation was formed, had access to these records; and the result, as delivered above, was thought more likely to be under, than over the truth.'

This

This catalogue, in which each plant is arranged according to the Linnean system, occupies many pages, and does credit to the author's industry as a botanist. To the arranged list is added this notice of plants, whose place in the system could not be ascertained for want of particular parts of the fructification:

'*Ká-iy-p,hul*, country name, GLADWIN's *Mat. Med.*—This is a middle sized tree, indigenous to these mountains, the bark of which is much valued in *Hindustan* for its aromatic and medicinal properties, and sold in every bazar under this name. The fruit is a drupe, about the size of a small nutmeg, of a round oval, the nut bony, furrowed, one-celled, one-seeded, covered with a thin pulp, with a carbuncled surface, red when ripe, and very agreeable to the taste, highly esteemed by the natives. The branches are opposite, cylindrical, much marked with the vestiges of fallen leaves. Leaves irregularly opposite, rather crowded about the extremities of the branches, petioled, ovate, pointed, sometimes elliptical, entire, smooth: petioles short, channelled. Flowers, according to information from the natives, in the month of *March*. It would probably bear the climate of *Britain*.

'No name.—In the neighbourhood of *Hurdwar*, a large spreading tree, without foliage, or flowers, the full pericarps hanging in many clusters consisting of five inflated large kidney-shape capsules, united at one end to the apex of a short woody peduncle, pointed at the other, the points inclined inwards, each capsule in size, &c. resembling the follicle of *Asclepias gigantea*, downy, one-celled, with a dorsal suture the whole length. Seeds from six to eight, ovate, about the size of a citron seed, black, covered with a white mealy substance, attached by one end to the edges of the suture. Some appearances warrant the conclusion it is a species of *Sterculia*. From the body of the tree exudes a white pellucid gum, discovering similar properties to the gum taken from *Sterculi platani-folia*, and which so much resembles gum *tragacanth*, that it has been collected and sold, on the supposition of being such. Whether it will stand the test, and be received as such in *Europe*, time will show. The plant producing that genuine gum, is not found on this side of *India*, to the best of my information.'

Hardwicke Captain Gen, in opposition to Mr. Daniel, who is followed by Major Rennel in his map of Hindustan, states the base of the snowy mountains to be at least 80 miles distant from Sirinagur, and not 15.

Description of the Caves or Excavations, on the Mountain, about a mile to the eastward of the Town of Ellore, or as called on the spot, VERROOL, *though therein there appears inaccuracy, as the foundation of the town is attributed to* YELLOO *or* ELLOO *rajah, whose capital is said to have been* ELLICHPORE. By Sir C. W. Malet, Bart.—These artificial caves, or excavations, which owe their

their origin to Eastern superstition, and which exhibit, in their decorations, the religious fable or mythology of Hindustan, must excite the astonishment of Europeans; both on account of the vast labour necessary to construct them, and of the architecture which they display. We may consider them as a species of recondite temples, hewn by the patient hand of art in the bowels of mountains. The vicinity of Ellore furnishes many excavations of this class, which are here enumerated and described. Some of the accounts are illustrated by plates, and to each is subjoined a table of dimensions. If we cannot exactly say, *ex uno disce omnes*, yet the representation of one of these caves will afford so general an idea of all, that we may be justified in venturing on one extract by way of specimen. We shall take the section which describes

'BISKURMA, or VISWAKURMA KA JOOMPREE, or BISKURMA,

'*The Carpenter's Hovel.*

'According to the legend, BISKURMA* was the artist, who fabricated the whole of these wonderful works in a night of six months; but the cock crowing before they were finished, they remained imperfect, and he retired, having wounded his finger, to this his hovel, in which state the figure in front of the entrance of this beautiful excavation is said to be a representation of him holding the wounded finger; but I rather think, with all due respect to the legend, that the figure is in the act of devout meditation, as many fingers, with similar positions of the hands, occur. But quitting the fable for the fact, this excavation is, in beauty, inferior to none. In form it is unique, and in design elegant. The portico is light, and striking to the beholder. On the right hand, as you enter, is a fine cistern of water. Above the gateway, which is richly sculptured on the out-side, is a balcony, which seems well suited if not intended, for a musick gallery, to the interior temple, which has the appearance of an elegant chapel, with an arched roof, and is exactly in the style of a similar excavation at *Kenara* on the island of *Salsette*, and another at *Ekvera*, near the top of *Bhore Ghaut*, first explored by Mr. Wales, the painter. At the upper end is the figure above mentioned. From the ceiling are projected stone ribs, following the curvature of the arch to the capitals of the pillars on each side through the whole length of the excavation. Beside the grand aisle, or body, of the excavation, there is a small passage formed by the row of pillars on each side round the altar, but it is dark and narrow. This singular form of cave, wherever I have met with it, has conveyed the same impression of its being a place of congregation and adoration, rather than of residence or habitation, and has given rise to an idea in my mind, from the orbicular ceiling, and the name and attitude of its inhabitant, that it may be meant to represent the Almighty, meditating the creation of the world, under the arch or canopy of unlimited space. It is necessary, however, to ac-

'* Creator of the world, but allegorically, artificer of RAM.'

company this idea, with an acknowledgement, that the similar caves of *Ekvera* and *Kenara*, are not inhabited by BISKURMA: they having only a very high altar, the top of which is circular, and situated as represented in the annexed drawing at the back of BISKURMA.

'Dimensions.

	Feet.	Inches.
Area, square, - - -	49	0
Veranda below, in front and each side having twelve pillars and two pilasters, broad, - -	14	0
Ditto roof, high, - - -	10	4
Door-way, four feet broad by eight feet four inches high, gallery above the door, square, -	14	0
Length of the temple from the entrance to the opposite wall behind the altar, - -	79	0
Breadth of ditto from wall to wall, - -	43	5
Height of ditto from the centre of the arch to the floor, - - - - -	35	0
N. B. The height between the pillars and the wall where the ceiling is flat, is, - -	14	10
Breadth between the pillars and wall, - -	7	8
Circumference of pillars (two square and twenty-eight octagon ones), - - -	8	1

Altar at the end about twenty-four feet high.'

In an introductory letter, the author adverts to the high antiquity assigned to these excavations by the Brahmins, who make them 7894 years old. He remarks, however, that the *Mohamedans*, who, as annalists, seem more intitled to credit than the *Hindus*, assert these caves to have been made about 900 years ago. In whatever period the monuments were constructed, it may be truly asserted that they are scarcely less extraordinary, though less conspicuous and less known, than the Pyramids of Egypt.

On the Antiquity of the SURYA' SIDDHA'NTA, *and the Formation of the Astronomical Cycles therein contained.* By Mr. J. Bentley.—It is well known that the *Hindus* boast of an antiquity very far surpassing that of all other nations, and adduce a sort of evidence by which they would justify their enormous pretensions. Their most antient astronomical treatise, the *Suryá Siddhánta*, is supposed by them to have been received by divine revelation about 2,164,899 years ago: but the object of this paper is to shew that their claim to such monstrous antiquity is not warranted by the strictest examination. M. Bailly, in 1787, published a volume at Paris on *Indian Astronomy*; and Mr. Playfair, two years afterward, gave a paper on the same subject in the Edinburgh Transactions: but these gentlemen were not furnished with the requisite materials for fully investigating

investigating the matter, and had not studied it with the patience and assiduity displayed by Mr. Bentley in the present memoir. We are informed, in the first place,

'That in most of the *Hindu* systems, certain points of time back, are fixed on as epochs, at which the planets are *assumed* to fall into a line of mean conjunction with the Sun, in the beginning of Arics. From the points of time, so assumed as epochs, the *Hindu* astronomer carries on his calculations, as if they had been settled so by actual observation; and determines the mean annual motions, which he must employ in his system, from thence, as will give the positions of the planets in his own time; as near as he is able to determine the same by observation.'

Mr. B. produces several examples to shew the absolute necessity of being well acquainted with the principles of the *Hindu* astronomy, before we can attempt to investigate their antiquity from the quantity of the mean annual motion of a planet. He indeed affords an elaborate and comprehensive view of the manner in which the *Hindu* systems are formed, and points out all those delusive appearances by which we are apt to be misled in their calculations.

When Mr. Bentley applies himself immediately to examine the Suryá Siddhánta, he wonderfully reduces its antiquity. By a chain of astronomical operations, for which we must refer to the memoir itself, calculating the motion of the moon's apogee, of the moon's ascending node, and of the sun's apogee on the motions of Venus, Mars, Moon, Jupiter, and Saturn, for a century of *Hindu* years, from the aphelion of Mars, and from the length of the year, and taking a mean of these results, the real age of the *Suryá Siddhánta* appears to be only 731 years.

The accuracy of this conclusion is confirmed by what follows:

'But independent of all calculations, we know from *Hindu* books, the age in which the *Suryá Siddánta* was written; and by whom. In the commentary on the *Bhasvoti*, it is declared, that VARA'HA was the author of the *Suryá Siddhánta*. The *Bhasvoti* was written in the year 1021 of *Saka*, by one SOTANUND; who, according to *Hindu* accounts, was a pupil of VARA'HA, and under whose directions he himself acknowledges he wrote that work. Consequently, VARA'HA must have been then alive, or else a very short time before it: which agrees as near as possibly can be with the age above deduced; for, the *Bhasvoti* in A.D. 1799, will be exactly 700 years old.

'That VARA'HA was the real author of the *Suryá Siddhánta* is still further confirmed by one of his works in my possession, entitled *Jatok Arnob*; the mean age of which comes out by computation 739 years. In this work, as in the *Suyrá Siddhánta*, the Sun, Moon, and planets, are assumed to have been in a line of mean conjunction, in

the first point of Aries at the commencement of the *Cali yug*, on the meridian of *Lanca*, and the mean annual motions by both are as follows:

	Jatok Arnob.	*Suryá Siddhánta.*
Sun -	$0^s\ 0^\circ\ 0'\ 0''\ 0'''$	$0^s\ 0^\circ\ 0'\ 0''\ 0'''$
Moon	$4\ 12\ 46\ 40\ 47\frac{672082}{3603279}$	$4\ 12\ 46\ 40\ 48$
Mercury	$1\ 24\ 45\ 18\ 1\frac{365442}{6987521}$	$1\ 24\ 45\ 18\ 0$
Venus	$7\ 15\ 11\ 52\ 48\frac{6734015}{2640605}$	$7\ 15\ 11\ 52\ 48$
Mars	$6\ 11\ 24\ 9\ 36\frac{189484096}{7882229}$	$6\ 11\ 24\ 9\ 36$
Jupiter	$1\ 0\ 21\ 6\ 0\frac{135911818800}{345060082337}$	$1\ 0\ 21\ 6\ 0$
Saturn	$0\ 12\ 12\ 50\ 20\frac{16859[illegible]240}{29806[illegible]8263}$	$0\ 12\ 12\ 50\ 24$

Annual motion of the Moon's apogee.

By the *Jatok Arnob* -	$1^s\ 10^\circ\ 41'\ 0''\ 54'''\frac{623635088}{777986647}$
By the *Suryá Sidhánta* -	$1\ 10\ 41\ 0\ 54$

Annual motion of the Moon's node.

By the *Jatok Arnob* -	$0\ 19\ 21\ 11\ 24\frac{25331206}{5396806914}$
By the *Suryá Siddhánta* -	$0\ 19\ 21\ 11\ 24$

Length of the year.

	Ds.	do.	I	II	III	IV
By the *Jatok Arnob*	365	15	31	31	24	$25\frac{549}{2407}$
By the *Suryá Siddhánta*	365	15	31	31	24	

'Now comparing the quantities of the motions, &c. deduced from these works with each other, it will evidently appear that one person must have been the author of both; for, though the quantities are not exactly the same, yet the differences are too small to admit of a supposition of their being the works of two different persons. In fact, the small difference between the *Jatok Arnob* and *Suryá Siddhánta*, appears to be owing to the system being completed in the one, and not in the other. For if we multiply the mean motions, &c. given in the *Jatok Arnob* by 1080000 (the least cycle of years in which the Sun, Moon, and planets are assumed to return to a line of mean conjunction by the *Suryá Siddhánta*) we shall have (rejecting the fractions and taking the nearest whole number) the same revolutions precisely as are given in the *Suryá Siddhánta*. This much may serve to shew who the real author of the *Suryá Siddhánta* was: but, if any further documents should be deemed requisite, a reference to almost any of the principal astronomical works, written since the time of VARA'HA, must be sufficient. For, in the *Brohma Siddhánta*, *Vishnu Siddhánta Munjeri*, and many others, that system or *Calpa* which is contained in the *Suryá Siddhánta*, is expressly called the *Calpa* of VARA'HA: or, as some express it, "the *Calpa* of VARA'HA the Fair." Therefore, any *Hindu* work in which the name of VARA'HA or his system is mentioned, must evidently be modern; and this circumstance alone totally destroys the pretended antiquity of many of the *Purans* and other books, which through the artifices of the *Brahminical* tribe, have been hitherto deemed the most ancient in existence.'

European

European chronologists and astronomers must feel themselves obliged to Mr. Bentley for the pains which he has bestowed, in detailing at considerable length the principles of the *Hindu* systems of astronomy; and we recommend his paper to their attention, as well meriting more notice than we have been able to bestow on it.

A short Discourse, delivered at a meeting of the Asiatic Society, on the 18th of January 1798, by the President, Sir Robert Chambers, stands at the head of these volumes; in which, while the speaker bestows the warmest praise on the great talents of his predecessors in the chair, the late Sir Wm. Jones, and Sir John Shore (now Lord Teignmouth), he modestly laments his inability to follow such great examples.

Prefixed to the 7th volume, is a list of various *Desiderata*, in order to direct and stimulate the inquiries of the members of the Society. Among the questions here proposed, it is asked by Mr. Marsden, 'Do the Oriental writings contain any means of ascertaining the precise meaning of the words כימה and כסיל (*keemu* and *kuseel*, Job, xxxviii. 31.) which our translation renders the *Pleiades* and *Orion?*' Divines and Scripture commentators would rejoice if, from the source of Eastern literature, they could derive a mode of clearly ascertaining the stars or constellations which these words were intended to designate.

Mo-y.

ART. VI. *The Claims of the British West India Colonists to the Right of obtaining necessary Supplies from America,* and of employing the necessary Means of effectually obtaining those Supplies under a limited and duly regulated Intercourse, stated and vindicated, in Answer to Lord Sheffield's Strictures. By G. W. Jordan, Esq. F.R.S. Colonial Agent for Barbadoes. 8vo. pp. 119. 3s Cadell and Davies. 1804.

POLITICAL Economy, it seems, like Religion, has its bigotted as well as its rational professors; and examples of each kind are afforded by the parties who now demand our consideration. So closely attached is Lord Sheffield to the navigation laws, that he will allow of no deviation from them, however imperiously required by circumstances; and the dictates of policy, or the calls of humanity, or the pressure of famine, are in his mind scarcely adequate excuses for any departure from the rigid enactments of our marine regulations. His Lordship had censured the Dutch property-act, the repeal of the American countervailing duties, and the admission of American shipping into our West India islands, under licences severally granted by the Privy Council here, and by the respec-

tive governments of the islands abroad. Mr. Jordan, however, triumphantly combats the views of the Noble Lord on all these points. The first two, indeed, are now merely events of past history: but it should seem that Mr. Jordan was of opinion that it would facilitate his success in debating the latter point, if he shewed that, in matters of like import, Lord S. was not intitled to the credit which previous reputation had a tendency to secure to him, but that on the contrary his ideas were confined, and that he laboured under prejudices which materially misled him.

In order to comprehend the third point in dispute, we must take a brief historical view of it. Mr. Jordan informs us that various articles, of which the colonies are in want, cannot be supplied by Great Britain, among which are those of the first necessity; that the American States, when subject to Great Britain, were accustomed to furnish these commodities to the West India islands; that they were principally conveyed in American bottoms; that the purchasers paid for them in produce; and that, when the American war broke out, the colonies, debarred of this important traffic, were reduced to extreme hardships. When peace became re-established, the necessity of a renewal of this intercourse between the islands and the American main land was universally felt and admitted; and accordingly it was allowed and regulated by the 28th of the King. In passing this statute, the Legislature took it for granted that the circuitous voyages of British ships,—vessels furnished by the colonies which still remained to England, and such as the islands themselves would build,—would be fully adequate to the transport of the American supplies; and it therefore enacts that these goods shall be imported solely in British bottoms. This expectation has completely failed; so that, from the date of the statute to the present time, licences sanctioned by Parliament have been issued by the Privy Council here, and by the several governments of the islands, dispensing with its provisions, and allowing the admission of American vessels; in order to prevent the inhabitants from starving, and to supply them with materials to inclose the produce which was to be conveyed to the mother country. The Legislature, in passing the before mentioned act, recognized the necessity of the intercourse between the islands and America, and had no idea of shackling it by directing an inadequate mode of carriage: but that the mode, which it did establish, was wholly inadequate, the experience of more than ten years demonstrates. Nothing can more strongly prove this fact, than the regular issue of licences dispensing with the provisions of the statute during the whole of that time. The Council at home is above

suspicion;

suspicion; and the governors abroad, as is here shewn, exercise the power under a very serious responsibility.

'I know,' says the author, 'the case to have occurred, when during the continuance of war, and whilst Great Britain, in extreme distress, had opened her ports to all ships, and paid bounties upon all species of corn and grain, and upon Indian corn amongst the rest, drawing thus from the colonies all means of supply, instead of sending them any, that letters of the strictest and harshest tenor were received by the chief of a colony respecting the admission of American vessels, and holding out in prospect the dangers annually indemnified against, although the colony was at that very time in a state of the greatest distress, and many whites and negroes had actually perished of famine, or of diseases which famine had provoked. At this very period, supplies of flour, embarked in this kingdom for the colonies, were by order actually relanded and retained.'

Lord Sheffield is here shewn to have censured the licences, without stating the urgent circumstances which rendered them absolutely indispensible. It is also proved that he charges the merchants and planters with seeking an unlimited intercourse with America, while they only solicit that the wisdom of the Legislature should provide effectual means for carrying on that restricted communication, without which the islands cannot subsist, and which Great Britain has hitherto allowed.

Mr. Jordan is most anxious not to entrench on the claims of the Parent State; he acknowleges her right to monopolize the whole trade of her colonies, and all its appurtenances, imports, exports, and carriage: but if, from choice or necessity, she abandons any part of this commerce, as is the case in the present instance with regard to the more heavy articles required by the colonies, she either ought to leave them to supply the defect in their own way, or else should effectually make this provision on their behalf. The British government sanctioned the intercourse, but it provided an insufficient channel for it; and when the Legislature had granted such permission, shall it be a reproach to the planters and merchants to require that without which the grant is ineffectual, that without which they must have died of famine, and the produce have perished for want of the means of package? Yet it is such a dispensation with the requisitions of an imperfect act of parliament, which the Noble Lord so strongly censures. It is not a dispensing power, as opposed to a regular and established law, that forms the burden of his lamentation, but the existence of the dispensations in any shape: yet the real situation of things proclaims that the islands would have been depopulated, and their produce wasted, if the act of parliament had been, as he desired, rigorously enforced.

It is here justly observed that, if Great Britain allows a colony to carry on a branch of commerce with another state, it ought to be governed by the same policy with that which regulates the like intercourse on the part of the mother-country. Now Great Britain allows goods to be imported in its own shipping, and in that of the state of which they are the produce; the principal navigation laws are therefore founded in national reciprocity; and it would be impossible to pass more strict navigation statutes, seeing that they affect other states as well as the state enacting them. In our traffic, then, with another nation, the ships of that nation and the ships of this country indifferently import the goods which belong to that nation. If we place a colony in the same situation with regard to a given branch of commerce, it is natural that the same rule should be observed; namely, that the goods imported should be brought indifferently in the shipping of Great Britain, or of the colony, or in the shipping of the country whence they are derived.

Mr. Jordan, who views his subject in all its bearings, rightly remarks that another state is a party in this matter; that we must legislate with her in view as well as ourselves; and that we ought to observe the reciprocity which is consulted in the chief navigation acts. We may enact that we shall export and import in colonial or British bottoms between the colony and America, but America will have a right to complain of the want of reciprocity, and most probably will not fail to exercise that right. The colony, *quoad* this particular traffic, should be regarded as identified with the Metropole; and the same rule should direct the intercourse with foreign states.

It is also a very important observation of this author, that, if in peace we supply the colonies with American articles in British bottoms, the conveyance of the same articles in time of war in American bottoms will be, on our own construction of the laws of nations, a contraband trade, and be liable to lawful capture by our enemy; whereas, by acting on the provisions of our leading marine statutes, that is, by admitting American produce (to the extent limited by the 28th of George III.) to be brought indifferently in English or American bottoms, the colonies in time of hostility will, in regard to necessaries and other essential articles, be put out of all hazard. We trust that considerations, so ably stated, and so temperately urged, will not long fail of producing the desired end; namely, an act which would effectually secure to the colonies the benefits contemplated by the 28th of the king, but to which it has proved utterly inadequate.

If

If the colonial intercourse with America is confined to its legal limits, (and Mr. J. observes that such is the vigilance of the revenue officers, that there can be no apprehension of this not being done), it ought to be regarded with satisfaction rather than jealousy; since it can only grow in proportion to the great carrying trade with England. It is, he tells us, as little the interest, as it is the duty of the West India proprietors, to wish that this valuable monopoly should be invaded. On the part of himself and his constituents, he renounces any intention of directly or indirectly diminishing this grand source of British wealth; and on the contrary he contends that the necessary regulations which he recommends, if once fixed on a legal unchanging basis, would materially increase the consignments to the parent state.—For the particulars of the detail into which Mr. J. enters, we must refer our readers to his very able and instructive pamphlet.

Assured of his present victory, the author invites his adversary to a fresh contest; and since the point, which the Noble Lord is solicited to discuss, possesses interest not merely as a subject on which political polemics may try their skill and knowlege, but claims our notice in various other respects of incomparably greater importance, we shall record the challenge in our pages: not so much from a hope of occasioning a literary tournament in which the present champions will take the lead, as in the more gratifying expectation of calling the attention of various good judges, and of the government, to a topic which strikes us as being of the utmost consequence.

'Over the remaining heads of recapitulation, as already disposed of, I hasten that I may supply your Lordship with matter for further consideration, and with other subjects of stricture. I wonder that the free ports of the West Indies have escaped your Lordship's animadversion. These are ports, established for the purpose of carrying on a trade in which none but foreign vessels are or can be employed. I introduce this subject, not merely for the information of your Lordship, but for the purpose of drawing the attention of Government thereto. Here is indeed a formidable invasion of the navigation and colonial systems of the empire. Yet I introduce this subject for the express purpose of recommending to Government to extend these principles and practices now applied, and obtaining in only particular cases and situations, to the general and permanent establishment of a trade, not limited to ports and places, but to be opened to all the British West India islands and colonies. It is possible to open a South American trade, as well as that of North America, which, without any respect to the nature of the shipping employed, shall, by a due enumeration and restriction of the permitted articles of exchange or carriage, with perfect safety and propriety, increase indefinitely the British import, export, and carrying trades of the West India islands.

'These

'These islands are so disposed along the coasts, or stretched across between the principal points of South and North America, that access to them from both the continents may at all times be had by the simplest and cheapest species of navigation. The approach of British vessels to the continent of South America is partially or totally forbidden by the great European powers who possess it. Under these circumstances, British vessels cannot be used in the intercourse with it. Great Britain, therefore, of necessity indeed, but with her accustomed wisdom, has opened certain ports in the colonies to vessels of these foreign countries, in order that they may bring in the enumerated articles she desires to obtain, and that they may carry the enumerated articles she wishes to dispose of, or such as are necessary to support the trade. The first enumeration contains articles of territorial produce of that part of the continent, and bullion among the rest; the other consists of goods of British manufacture, or import, or articles of territorial produce of the islands. Great Britain does not upon this occasion consider her navigation and colonial systems, as not at any time, upon any occasion, or under any circumstances to be invaded. She looks to the objects and purposes of those systems. She wants raw materials; she wants markets for her various articles of manufacture, commerce, and produce; she wants encouragement and extensive employment for her shipping. By neglecting all consideration of the use, as militating against her navigation and colonial systems, of these petty vessels, which serve to associate her islands with the continent, she obtains all the objects of those systems, materials, markets, and increased carriage. The ports of her islands become ports of the continent, and these vessels are only as the port vessels and lading droghers of other countries. British ships carry to, and bring away from the islands the commodities laden in, and unladen from these vessels, and neither their employment or their numbers is to be contemplated or calculated upon by Great Britain, but as proofs of the extension of her own commerce and proper navigation.

'Instead, therefore, of a port in Grenada, a port in Dominica, two in Jamaica, one in Tortola, one in the Bahamas, it might upon these principles well be recommended to Great Britain, to extend the provisions of the Free Port Acts to all the islands, or to the Custom-house ports of all the islands. It might further be proposed, by enlarging and combining all the principles and practices which alike prevail in the West India intercourse with the Northern and Southern portions of America, to form one general, simple, and consolidated system, that should connect them all, which should embrace and comprehend the at present enumerated articles of import and export between the whole continent and the islands, and permit between them the employment, jointly with British ships, of one decked vessels, of all the countries growing the commodities imported into the islands. I submit this proposal to the severity of your Lordship's strictures, I suggest it for the consideration of Ministers.

'In this view of the subject, what is there to be objected against North American vessels of this description, that will not apply to the Spanish launches of South America, and what is there to recommend the droghers of the Oronoko, and of the river of the Amazons, that will

will not also favour the sloops and schooners of the Delaware and the Chesapeak? They are all but as the country boats of all the other nations of the world, employed wherever our commerce extends, to bring to and deposit in ports of access, commodities for use or for transport. They are auxiliary and subservient to the great traders of the deep, who may pass by them with their woven wings without jealousy or envy.

'I again most seriously and earnestly recommend to His Majesty's Ministers, to establish a general American intercourse with all the British West India colonies upon these general principles, and I do not hesitate to say, that if Great Britain still continues to refuse the employment of these petty vessels, for these purposes, and in the manner proposed, that she sacrifices, and continues to sacrifice her navigation, to her navigation and colonial systems.'

If we have been taught, at an immense expence, to think justly on the subject of colonies, and if we have exploded the notion of a right of taxing them, we ought to have regarded the attempt to tax foreign states as scarcely less impracticable, or less unjust. As this is an error which, like the fatal one before committed, is calculated for popularity, we insert the able exposure of it by the pen of Mr. Jordan:

'Unfortunately during the late war, an idea was taken up, against all principles of political wisdom and public justice, to tax foreign nations, by retaining part of the drawback, upon the re-exportation of sugar from Great Britain. This was a great breach of parental faith, on the part of Great Britain; it was a great breach of justice thus to take away a portion of the accidental profits of commerce which they only are honourably entitled to, who risque at all times equally the loss and the profit. Like all other great violations of principle, this also was attended with consequences directly, indirectly, and remotely injurious to all whom it affected. One of these indirect and remote consequences, was an attempt made for the first time, in the ports of the colonies, to establish those distinctions between the exports to the United States, in British and in American vessels. Sugar and coffee were either absolutely prohibited to American vessels, or limited to specified portions of their return cargoes. Considerable impediments to the obtaining of supplies or necessaries were thus vexatiously created and perpetuated, and great inconveniencies sustained. Not among the least was the considerable drainage of specie, complained of in all the colonies. American vessels were compelled, either to leave a particular colony without dealing, or they drew out from amidst the population of the country, those last portions of gold or of silver money which, retained amidst the ranks of society by all the principles and energies of political existence and combination, yield only to the most powerful actions, and like the last portions of moisture which give form and solidity to natural bodies, are only in the extremest cases separated and carried off. The specie thus obtained was immediately laid out to purchase without restriction, return cargoes of produce among the foreign islands, to their great encouragement, and to the

considerable vexation and injury of the British colonists. This drainage of specie was attended with considerable loss, not only to the planters, but to government also, in the article of exchange. From the scarcity of money, all bills sustained a depression in the market, of a considerable per centage, and in our market, where the money point of exchange is fixed at forty per cent. Government could frequently get only twenty-five per cent. or a smaller per centage on the bills she was obliged to sell for the purposes of maintaining her establishments. This certain loss, considerably overbalancing any contingent interests, deserves the attention and regulation of Government.

'This unprincipled and abortive attempt to tax foreign nations, by importing among them commodities loaded with domestic duties, was at length abandoned. Something like a better system has succeeded. Regulations have been formed, according to which, although at times, and under increasing prices, increasing portions of the drawback on sugars may be retained, yet, in compensation for this, it is with some apparent fairness provided, that in other cases, a bounty shall be superadded when the prices fall beyond a certain point. There is, indeed, in the ascending scale of bounties but one solitary step of compensation, whilst in the descending the drawbacks are diminished through many and various degrees of decline, into total extinction. All assurance also is suspended, as to the permanent benefits of this arrangement, by its limited existence, and consequent dependance upon uncertain opinions, and upon political events and combinations yet more uncertain.

'From discussions of this sort, all questions of finance ought upon principle to be excluded. Whatever sacrifices commerce may make to navigation, she should make none to revenue.'

Readers who prefer instruction to amusement will set a high value on the present pamphlet; and the superior orders of persons will discern in it much of that accuracy and precision, which men of scientific views and habits sometimes happily introduce into the treatment of subjects on which moral probabilities are alone concerned. We take leave of it with the acknowlegement that it has highly gratified and instructed us; and we cordially recommend it to the attentive perusal of all who are possessed of either commercial or political influence. Jo.

ART. VII. *Notes relative to the late Transations in the Marhatta Empire:* Fort William, 15th December 1803. Illustrated with five Military Plans. 8vo. pp. 116. and Appendix, pp. 196. 12s. 6d. sewed. Stockdale. 1804.

PUBLIC fame ascribes the present production to the highest oriental authority, viz. to the Governor-General in India; and the assertion, which remains uncontradicted, appears to be corroborated by internal evidence. Indeed, the decisive indications of an energetic and comprehensive mind, together with

with the indubitable traces of liberal and enlarged views, which are conspicuous in this tract, strongly point out the Marquis Wellesley as the writer. A short chapter of history, wrought up to high interest, and very important in its contents, is here given to the British public. It exhibits, in a narrow compass, a striking view of a famed Indian confederacy; ably delineating its origin and progress, its views and its relations with the British power, and with other states within and without the limits of Hindostan. Incidentally are developed many particulars of our situation in the East, and various matters are disclosed which affect our interests as an Indian power. A publication which contains so much to gratify curiosity, whether we regard the facts which are related, or the observations with which they are accompanied, seldom issues from the press.

The origin of the Marhatta empire goes no farther back than to the latter part of the last century; and the descendants of the adventurer who founded it, the Rajahs of Sattarah, have for a considerable time, as happens very commonly in India, been only its nominal chiefs; the power for some generations having rested with the Peishwahs, whose title designates them as the prime ministers of the Rajahs, but who are in fact the real sovereigns of the confederacy. The Peishwah has states immediately subject to him; and he claims a superiority over a variety of chieftains, who are become of late almost wholly independent of him, who constitute the Marhatta confederacy, and the chief among whom are the Rajah of Berar, Madagee Scindia, and Holkar. Each of the two latter has alternately attempted to reduce the Peishwah to the condition of the sovereign in whose name he rules, and to serve him as his ancestors served the Rajahs of Sattarah; this was nearly accomplished by Scindia, and would have been completely effected by Holkar, had it not been for the interference of the British Governor-General.

It had been for some time the policy of the Company's government to favour the paramount authority of the Peishwah, without countenancing any infringement on the rights of the subordinate confederate chiefs. The Peishwah was the Company's ally in the late war with Tippoo: but the influence which Scindia exercised in the Durbar of Poonah rendered that alliance inefficient; and his intrigues were directed against the British enterprizes in that quarter. So entirely was the Peishwah in his power, that he dared not renew his alliance on advantageous terms with the Company. In the summer of 1803, Holkar, who was at the same time at war with Scindia, got possession of Poonah, the seat of the

Peishwah's government; and in consequence the latter fled, and sought refuge in the territories of the Company. In this situation he gladly entered into a fresh treaty (the treaty of Bassein) with his protectors; in which the Company guarantee to him his possessions and prerogatives, due regard being paid to the rights of the Marhatta chiefs: while almost at the very same time, by gallant and expeditious conduct on the part of General Wellesley, the states of the Peishwah were freed from Holkar, the capital was saved from meditated and threatened destruction, and the Peishwah was re-seated on the Musnud.

Both Scindia and the Rajah of Berar on this occasion united their forces; each was glad that their common rival had been driven from his late acquisitions, and each meditated a similar aggression. Each, therefore, viewed with jealousy the treaty of Bassein, and the protection which it insured to the Peishwah; and they both resolved to act against the British power, in order to render the field clear for a contest for the Musnud of Poonah, or for any arrangement on which they might agree, when they should have removed the obstacle of British interference. The united forces of the two chieftains were posted in a situation which threatened with danger the Nizam, an ally of the Company; and this posture was alarming on other accounts to the British interests, as well as most inconsistent with a state of peace. The Rajah and Scindia were therefore required by the Governor-General to retire to their respective states, and to cease to give alarm to the courts of Hydrabad, Poonah, and to the Company's government. Scindia openly avowed that he was meditating war, that he was deliberating on it with the Rajah, and he promised in a short time to communicate the result to the British resident. When he had displayed very insulting conduct, and practised much provoking chicane, and when it appeared that his sole view was delay, which was to him a material object, the Governor-General resolved no longer to defer hostilities. Had the Governor-General suffered himself to have been amused by the professions of Scindia, there is no doubt that the latter would have attempted to get the Peishwah into his power, and either openly to assume his authority, or to rule in his name. Had the whole Marhatta empire fallen into the hands of any one vigorous chief, whether Scindia or Holkar, it would have formed a power dangerous to the Company's interests; a power which would have been the ready and cordial ally of France, and which would have seconded that restless state in any attempts that she might make to regain a footing in Hindostan.

It is a curious fact that, in the vicinity of the northern limits of the Company's territories, a French officer, M. Perron, exercised

ercised a great territorial dominion, extending towards the left bank of the Indus through the Punjaub, and comprehending Agra, Delhi, and a large portion of the Doab of the Jumna and Ganges. It so happened that this new power lay on the most vulnerable part of the western frontier of Hindostan. This French General had possession of the unfortunate Shah Allum, (the deposed Mogul Emperor) whom he held in complete subjection; he drew from that monarch's territories a revenue of 1,700,000*l.*; he possessed a numerous and well appointed artillery; he had under his command a force of 16 or 17,000 regular and well-disciplined infantry, with a great number of European officers, and 15 or 20,000 horse, besides irregular troops, and reinforcements which he might draw from several small states which were in alliance with him, and which were tributary to him; and his infantry and artillery were the most efficient in India, the British excepted. This was a power which called for the marked attention of the Company's government; since it must have proved, on all occasions, hostile to the interests of the British empire, and must have lent its aid to all the schemes and designs of the actual ruler of France.

The conduct of Scindia and the Rajah leaving to the British government in India no other alternative than war, or the compromise of its most valuable interests, as well as solemn engagements, it became the duty of the Governor-General to devise plans for waging it successfully.

'The arrangements adopted during this arduous crisis of affairs were directed to provide for a general combined attack to be made, nearly at the same time, on the united army of Scindiah and the Rajah of Berar under their personal command in the Dekan, and on all their most vulnerable and valuable possessions in every quarter of India. The plan of operations comprehended a tract of country, extending from Delhi * and the Presidencies of Fort William, Fort St.

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* Delhi to Poonah, - - 913 Miles.
Hyderabad, - - 950
Baroach, about - - 800
Cuttack, - - 902
Fort William to Poonah, - - 1289
Hyderabad, - - 902
Baroach, - - 1251
Fort William to Bombay, - - 1301
Fort St. George, - - 1030
Fort St. George to Poonah, - 660
Hyderabad, - - 352
Boorhanpoor, - - 769
Fort St. George to Bombay, - 758
Baroach to Cuttack, - near 1000'

George,

George, and Bombay, to Poonah, Hyderabad, Guzerat, and Orissa, and embraced, together with the security and defence of the British dominions, the important objects of defeating the confederate chieftains in the field; of establishing our allies, their highnesses the Peishwah and the Nizam in their respective legitimate governments; of securing the legitimate succession to the government of the Dekan; of delivering the unfortunate and aged emperor Shah Allum, and the royal house of Timur, from misery, degradation, and bondage; and of extirpating the last remnant of French influence in India, by rescuing his Imperial Majesty the Moghul, from the hands of a desperate band of French adventurers; and by destroying the powerful artillery and military resources of Monsieur Perron, and of the French state founded upon the ruins of the authority of the Moghul, and under the auspices of Scindiah, on the north-west frontier of Hindostan.

'The army under Major-General Wellesley was directed to the purpose of opposing the confederated force under the command of Scindiah and the Rajah of Berar. The effect of Major-General Wellesley's success might be expected to deliver from all danger the Nizam, the Peishwah, and the Company's possessions in Mysore, in the western and southern districts of the Dekan, and on the frontier of Berar; and to establish the governments of the Guikwar, of Poonah, and of Hyderabad.

'By the reduction of Cuttack in Orissa, an effectual blow would be struck against the Rajah of Berar's resources, the only maritime territory of the Marhattas, on the eastern side of the peninsula of India, would be secured from all intercourse with the French, a valuable addition would be made to our revenue, and a strong barrier added to the frontier of Bengal against predatory incursion; the intercourse between Bengal and the territories of Fort St. George would also be protected from interruption. The seizure of Scindiah's ports in Guzerat would leave no possession on the sea coast of the western side of the peninsula to the Marhattas, excepting that occupied by our allies the Peishwah and the Guikwar, and the confined territories of Angria, and other piratical states, through which the communication with Scindiah's territories is nearly impracticable.

'The operations on the north-west frontier of Oude, under the immediate direction of General Lake, embraced a most important branch of the war; namely,—First, The destruction of the power of the French adventurers, established on the banks of the Jumna under Monsieur Perron. Secondly, The extension of the British frontier to the Jumna, with the possession of Agra, Delhi, and a sufficient chain of posts on the right bank of the Jumna, for the protection of the navigation of that river. Thirdly, The protection of the person of the emperor Shah Allum. Fourthly, The establishment of an efficient system of alliance with the petty states, beyond the right bank of the Jumna, from Jeynagur to the province of Bundelcund*. Fifthly, the annexation of Bundelcund to the Company's dominions, by

'* This province is situated to the S. W. of the Jumna river, 24th and 25th degrees of north latitude.'

which

which annexation great additional security would be derived to the rich province and city of Benares, and an effectual check opposed to whatever power might remain to the Rajah of Berar, or to any other Marhatta chief in that quarter.

'The result of this plan of operations on the north-west frontier of Oude, would destroy the influence of the French, and of the Marhattas, in the northern districts of Hindostan, and would enable the British government to commence the foundation of such an intercourse with the Seiks, and the tribes inhabiting the Punjab, and the banks of the river Attock, as might furnish sufficient means of frustrating any attempt of an invading enemy from the western side of the Indus.

'In addition to these advantages, it was highly important to protect the person and nominal authority of the Moghul against the designs of France. The person and authority of that unhappy monarch were treated by the Marhattas and by the French with the most barbarous indignity and violence, and it appeared honourable to the reputation of the British name to afford a secure, respectable, and tranquil asylum to the fallen dignity and declining age of the Emperor of Hindostan. It was also necessary to extend the protection of the British government to his Majesty's heir apparent, and to any of the royal family who might otherwise fall into the hands of French adventurers, and under the direction of French agents, might become a powerful aid to the cause of France in India.' —

'The local situation of Scindiah's territories, and the nature of his military force in Hindostan, would always have constituted a serious danger to the British interests. Part of those territories was situated between the Jumna and the Ganges; they interrupted our line of defence in that quarter, and some of Scindiah's principal posts were introduced into the center of our dominions, while the possession of Agra, Delhi, and of the right bank of the Jumna, enabled that chieftain to command nearly the whole line of our north-western frontier.

'Formidable as the power of Scindiah might have proved in the event of any accession to his strength by a connection with France, or with any enemy to the British interest, a danger more urgent had grown out of the decline of Scindiah's local authority in Hindostan, in the establishment of a regular corps of infantry, under the command of European officers, supported by funds derivable almost exclusively from the territorial possessions of Scindiah, situated between the Jumna, Ganges, and the mountains of Cumaon.

'A considerable portion of this territory was assigned to Monsieur Perron, who had formed it into an independent state, of which Scindiah's regular infantry might justly be termed the national army. The inhabitants of this territory considered Monsieur Perron as their immediate sovereign, while the troops, supported by the revenues of the country, regarded Monsieur Perron as the immediate executive authority, from which the army was to receive orders, subsistence, and pay.

'Possessed of such means, Monsieur Perron dictated with the authority of a sovereign state of superior rank, and with the vigour of

efficient military power, to the petty states occupying the countries on the right bank of the Jumna, and by the terror of his name and arms, held in abject submission the Rajepoot states of Jeynagur and Joudpore, together with the Jauts, and the state of Gohud, extending his influence even to Buldencund, and to the country occupied by the Seiks.

'Under the influence of a succession of French adventurers, the British government must have been exposed to every intrigue of the French in India, and even to the ambition and hostile spirit of the person who now rules the French nation; nor could an instrument of destruction more skilfully adapted to wound the heart of the British empire in India, have been presented to the vindictive hand of the Chief Consul of France.

'This French state actually held possession of the person and nominal authority of the Moghul, maintained the most efficient army of regular infantry, and the most powerful artillery then existing in India, (with the exception of his Majesty's and the Company's troops,) and exercised a considerable influence over the neighbouring states, from the banks of the Indus to the confluence of the Jumna and the Ganges. Under any circumstances of an intimate connection between Scindiah and the British Government, even in the event of that chieftain's accession to the treaty of Bassein, and to the general defensive alliance with the Company, the Nizam and the Peishwah, it is impossible to suppose, that this French state would have co-operated with cordiality in support of the British interests.

'In the event of an attack from France upon the British dominions in India, it could not be expected, that a French state, erected under the nominal and ostensible auspices of Scindiah in Hindostan, would have afforded any substantial aid to the ally of the British power, in a contest against France, even if that ally should have been disposed to have assisted us in such a crisis.

'On the other hand, no doubt existed, that Scindiah would always receive the most zealous aid from the same state in any attempt which he might make, either for the reduction of the British, or for the aggrandizement of the French power in India.

'The safety of the British dominions in India, either with reference to a contest with Scindiah, to a renewal of war with France, or to both these contingencies, required therefore the reduction of Monsieur Perron's power, and it became the duty of the British Government to be prepared to assume the protection of its own territories, and to remove with its own hand, the proximate cause of insecurity and alarm.'

The prints of the time have informed the public of the valour of the British forces, as well in the several battles of Delhi, Assye, and Laswaree, as in the gallant assault of Ally Ghur, and the spirited and judicious operations of Coel.

The noble author thus concludes his masterly sketch:

'From the 8th of Aug. 1803, the day on which hostilities commenced, to the 1st of November, the British army has conquered all the possessions of Scindiah in Guzerat, the city of Boorhanpoor in Candeish, the province of Cuttack in Orissa, the Marhatta dominions between the

the Jumna and the Ganges, the city of Delhi and the right bank of the Jumna, the city of Agra, and the adjoining territory; has reduced by storm the fortified town of Ahmednuggur, the forts of Alyghur, Baroach, and Cuttack; and by capitulation, after having opened batteries, the forts of Ahmednuggur, of Powanghur, and Champoneer, the fort of Asseerghur, denominated the key of the Dekan, and the fort of Agra, denominated the key of Hindostan: and has defeated the enemy in three general engagements, at Delhi on the 11th of September, at Assye on the 23d of September, and at Laswaree on the 1st November; having taken, according to the official returns, on the field of battle in those engagements and under the walls of Agra, two hundred and sixty-eight pieces of ordnance, five thousand stand of arms, two hundred and fifteen tumbrils, and fifty-one stand of colours, with a large quantity of stores, baggage, camp equipage, and ammunition.

'The official returns of the artillery, stores, &c. taken from the enemy have not yet been received, from Ahmednuggur, Baroach, the fort of Delhi, Firozebad, Champoneer, Powhanghur, Jalnahpoor, Cuttack, Boorhanpoor and Asseerghur, but the amount of the returns actually received of ordnance taken in the several forts, exclusive of that taken on the field of battle, is *four hundred and forty five pieces of ordnance*, exclusive of tumbrils, stores, &c. making the total number of ordnance, of which returns have been received, captured from the 8th of August to the 1st of November, *seven hundred* and *thirteen*.

'The progress and result of these successful operations have restored his Highness the Peishwah to his sovereign authority at Poonah, and cemented our alliance with that Prince; have secured the succession of the legitimate heir of the sovereign Prince of the Dekan to the government of his deceased father the late Nizam; have protected the British interests at Hyderabad from injury; have confirmed the stability of the treaties by which the French were expelled from the Dekan in 1798; and have delivered the aged, venerable, and unfortunate Emperor of Hindostan from misery and ignominy, from indigence and bondage, and from the hands of the French.'

The rapidity and success of these operations were also owing, in no small degree, to the admirably combined system of attack devised by the ingenious and animated narrator of them. With regard to the subsequent renewal of hostilities with Holkar, the recent advices from India do not enable us to form very precise ideas, nor to form a very decided judgment on the subject: but they seem to indicate that, great as have been our conquests, they have not been complete.

This noble author appears eminently anxious to satisfy his employers that he was not the aggressor in the Marhatta war; that he was forced into the measure by the Marhatta chiefs; and that he could not have declined it without hazarding the security of the Company's interests. If the facts here advanced be correct, and we see no reason to dispute them, it will be

impossible to resist the conclusions drawn by the narrator; whose style of argumentation is remarkably neat, luminous, and convincing.

The first article of the Appendix contains a concise account of the rise and progress of the Marhatta empire; accompanied with similar descriptions of the principal states which form the Marhatta confederacy. No one will read these papers without wishing that the same pen were employed to describe the internal polity, resources, views, and interests, as well as external relations, of all the states which occupy the several divisions of Hindostan; together with that singular and monstrous anomaly of empire exercised there under the mighty lords of Leadenhall-street.

It is now known that it was the wish of Lord Wellesley to have retained his high post for a longer period. When we reflect on the ability which he has displayed, on the success which has attended his enterprizes, on the vigour and policy which marked his measures, and on his liberal views on the subject of free-trade; and when we recognize in him the patron of learning, the founder of the college at Calcutta, and the advocate of a still larger establishment of that nature; we cannot help regretting his intended removal. Other views, however, have prevailed with the ruling powers; and in the Marquis Cornwallis, who has just taken his departure for India, a successor of much merit and many virtues has certainly been appointed. A different system, it is understood, will be pursued by the new Governor; the effects of which, time alone will enable us to appreciate and compare with the preceding order of things.

Jo.

ART. VIII. *Oriental Tales*, translated into English Verse, by J. Hoppner, Esq., R. A. Crown 8vo. pp. 123. 7s. Boards. Hatchard. 1805.

POETS are painters, and painters will sometimes be poets. Creative imagination belongs to each. The artist who is occupied in assisting the dull conceptions of common readers, by exhibiting to the senses the delineations of poetry, will imperceptibly grow enamoured of the Muse, and be tempted to combine the pleasures of both professions. Though Mr. Hoppner appears before us in the humble character of a translator, it is very evident that he is no novice at versification; and though he professes to be a mere borrower of ideas, his own mind supplies many conceptions, and his fancy discovers itself in the whole progress of the undertaking. The narration trips on the toe of light and humorous satire; and his reader

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will thank him for having put these Eastern Tales into an English garb which so well fits and becomes them.

In explaining the motive which prompted him to this poetical adventure, Mr. H. discloses a part of his family history. To be employed on a work of this nature, he observes, may 'be thought too light even for the *amusement* of a father who has five children, more than one of whom is nearly arrived at man's estate:

'But this circumstance, (he continues) which might have been objected against me by the more scrupulous, has indeed been the accidental cause of my engaging in a pursuit so remote from the regular course of my studies. My eldest son having the prospect of an appointment in India, the attainment of the Persian language became an essential point in his education; and among other books laid before him, was the Tooti Nameh, or Tales of the Parrot. It was in a translation of this work that I first read the tale of "the Ass and the Stag," the genuine merit of which struck me so forcibly, as to engage me in an attempt at putting it into verse, where I conceived the humour and whimsical gravity of the dialogue would be seen to more advantage. Whether I was right in this conjecture will be ascertained by those less partial than the most diffident author ever was supposed to be: and to their decision I shall readily submit; satisfied that what I may lose on the side of vanity, I shall gain in a more just estimation of my own powers, and in the subsequent management of them accordingly.'

In another part of the preface, when he speaks of his plan and resources, he seems to beg pardon of British Ladies for the pointed satire directed in these compositions against the female character: but his apology is accompanied by a stinging reproof:

'Four of the following Tales are selected from the Tooti Nameh, or Tales of the Parrot, viz. the Ist, IId, IVth, and VIth. The IIId is founded on one of a set published in a small volume by the the Rev. W. Beloe. The Vth from the Heetopades of Veeshnoo-Jarma; and the VIIth and VIIIth are from the Fables of the 12th and 13th centuries, published by Mons. Le Grand. On these, as they have all the air of an Eastern origin, with the exception of changing sheiks and imams, into monks, &c. I conceived that I had a legitimate cause of making reprisals, and have therefore converted them into imams and sheiks again, with a view of preserving uniformity.

'Should some of these Tales appear to bear a little hard upon the female character, I would request the fair reader to consider that they represent Eastern manners and morals; and that they are the actions of a people whose gods were monsters, or whose prophet was Mahomet. In a Christian country, I presume, these things could not happen; and yet if our theatres are places to which ladies resort to view themselves "as in a glass," there is not then much to choose between

the manners of the East and of the West. But vice upon the stage is so cheerfully lit up, and so agreeably set to music, that it may possibly pass for virtue; which will readily account for our ladies sitting with so much complacency at the representation of modern comedies, the most admired of which do not exhibit a single immaculate character to hang our hopes upon; or to shew that virtue may at once appear amiable and genteel.'

The eight tales included in this little volume are intitled, The Ass and the Stag—The Faggot-maker and the Fairies—The Man and the Genie—The Seven Lovers—The Cow-keeper and the Barber's Wife—The Princess and the Musician—The Three Beggars of Bagdat,—and The Physician of Delhi.

Mr. Hoppner adverts to the origin of tale-writing, which he refers to the East; 'whence, through the medium of Persia, it spread, (he says,) in the times of the Caliphs, over the Western world.' Apologues and tales are of great antiquity; and they are found among the American Indians as well as among the tribes of Asia. The scriptures also afford us beautiful specimens of them, which were known in the Western world before the times of the Caliphs.

Though Mr. H. disclaims all intention of ever making his appearance a second time before the public as a poet, we shall take the liberty of offering a few critical strictures. His verse flows with ease, his rhythm is as correct as compositions of this kind require, and his rhimes are generally good: but now and then we have such rhimes as *taste* and *feast*, *haste* and *east*, *poor* and *lore*. Errors in orthography also occur, as 'break' for *brake*, 'glote' for *gloat*, 'wile' for *while*. The lines

'Pride, pomp, and power's contained in this!'

'And fly, impostor, fly from *here!*'

are disgraced by more material incorrectness. In one place, Mr. H. has introduced the vulgar expression, '*as plain as sin*:' but how would he, as a painter, delineate Sin which seduces even the wise; and how has Milton described her?

"The one seem'd woman to the waste, and *fair*."

In writing the line,

'Ungrateful, still, alas! adored,'

Mr. H., we apprehend, was not directed by an Oriental poet, but thought of the line in Tibullus,

'*Perfida, sed quamvis perfida, cara tamen.*'

From the second tale, we shall make an extract, as a specimen of the versification. The faggot-maker, after having been invited

invited to join the Fairies in their sports round their mystic bowl, is encouraged by their kindness to beg the bowl itself, as a sure means of conferring perfect happiness: but the sequel proves that "our very wishes give us not our wish."

'Grown more assured, he, in reply,
Had but one wish to gratify,
That made him almost die with shame,—
A wish, in short, he scarce could name,
Since nothing but the mystic bowl
Would satisfy his ardent soul.
Shrill laughter shook their tiny sides,
And each his idle fear derides:
"And is this all," they cry, "is this
The mighty boon you dread to miss?
The loss, forsooth would make us poor!—
O, little skill'd in fairy lore!
A twinkling would before us set
Ten thousand bowls more precious yet.
Yet treat not lightly, gentle friend,
What fate, propitious, deigns to lend;
But guard it with thy tend'rest care—
'Tis precious, yet 'tis brittle ware!
One caution more—take special heed
To use it only in thy need."
'The man with joy was nearly dumb—
"'Twixt him and bliss no chance should come;
So rare a treasure 'twere but right
To keep for ever in his sight.
Each thought, each motion of his soul,
Was bent to guard that sacred bowl."
Thus saying, he received the gift,
And, though all rapture, *made a shift*,
To reach his home; nor sign betray'd
Of loss of wit, or fortune made.
Caress'd his wife, his children fed,
And went, when some folks dine, to bed:
Paid all his debts without debate,
Not aiming yet to ape the great;
Gave alms on Pity's tender hint,
Nor look'd to see his name in print:
In short, discretion, bless the while!
On all his actions seem'd to smile.
'Wisdom and want we often pair;
But wise and fortunate, how rare!
Chance had on our poor friend bestow'd
Far more than he to wisdom owed;
For he was one, in life's past scenes,
Whose wishes still outran his means,
Yet care his heart had little pain'd,
And light the traces that remain'd.

Where misery once usurps control
She ever reigns.—Still, still, my soul
(Though fortune long her brow hath smooth'd,
And cheering hope my sorrows sooth'd)
Looks from her secret chamber out,
And views mankind with fear and doubt.
Should pleasure in my path be found,
Awed, I approach the enchanted ground;
Suspect, beneath each flower, a snare,
And tread, with trembling caution, there.
Not so our friend; he'd rarely miss
To quaff the full-crown'd cup of bliss.—
His money burnt, and now he found
His hut scarce peep'd above the ground.
Grown rich, so many friends, he told,
A palace only would them hold:
He builds, the city entertains,
With wonder every eyeball strains;
The talismantic bowl displays,
And pours its wealth a thousand ways.
Though various passions fill'd each breast,
Contentment smiled in every guest;
The pamper'd here refine their taste,—
Rich wines of Shiraz crown'd the feast,
That from a thousand fountains flow'd,
And dreams of happiness bestow'd.
On rosy beds recline the fair,
Sweet musky odours scent the air,
Soft music in each bosom trill'd,
And every pain, save love, was still'd.
'This idle show, this vain parade
Of wealth, most ill bestow'd, display'd;
Elate with pride, inflamed with wine,
Our host himself resolved to shine:
In points and angles set each limb,
Prepared in mazy dance to swim.
Vain of his skill, poor silly soul!
He balanced on his arm the bowl,
Which, as he turn'd him round and round,
He struck; and, to the vibrant sound,
"O, soul delighting bowl!" he cried,
"Source of my wealth, my joy, my pride;
Spring of my state, my envy'd show,
And every blessing known below;
This dazzling pomp proceeds from thee,
Thou author of my jubilee!
'Tis thou hast raised me from the dust,
O glorious goblet! sacred trust!
O light that leads to every joy!
Fountain of sweets, that never cloy!"

Thus,

Thus, as his praise redundant flows,
His flaming eyes he upward throws;
And like a fakeer most devout,
Rolls them with pious zeal about;
Capers like one to reason lost,
His body writh'd, his members tost,
Till, by one slip, ah, woe the day!
The bowl in glittering fragments lay.
'That instant vanish'd all his state,
His costly robes, his massy plate,
His gilded rooms, his palace fair,
All, like a dream, dissolved in air.
The splendid banquet of delight
To mourning turn'd that luckless night;
And he, who gaily danced and sung,
His bosom beat, his fingers wrung;
Even he, so late all noise and mirth,
Now cursed the hour of his sad birth.
'Thus oft is wealth, too lightly earn'd,
By folly to destruction turn'd.
Heedless of all the blessings given,
To make on earth a present heaven,
He in a brawl, or midnight revel,
Reels brainless, hopeless, to the devil.'

The moral of this tale is the display of the vanity of human wishes, and the ill effect of riches. This has been a common-place subject with poets at all times: but so devotedly fond are mankind of the gewgaws of Vanity-Fair, that neither serious exhortation, nor satire, nor ridicule, can induce them to moderate their desires, and to prefer virtue to opulence.

We shall not interfere with Mr. Hoppner in his professional strictures on the merit of the works of Madame Le Brun.

Moy.

ART. IX. *The Decameron, or Ten Days' Entertainment of Boccaccio.* Translated from the Italian. The second Edition corrected and improved. To which are prefixed, Remarks on the Life and Writings of Boccaccio, and an Advertisement, by the Author of *Old Nick, a Piece of Family Biography*, &c. 8vo. 2 Vols. 16s. Boards. Vernor and Hood, &c. 1804.

THE first edition of this translation was published so long since as the year 1741, in one volume, octavo. The present editor has not only corrected many errors, both typographical and grammatical, but has altered various passages which were rendered with ambiguity, feebleness, or distortion of the original meaning. Obsolete orthography, and low and inelegant modes of expression, have been cancelled with an unsparing

sparing hand; and the first, instead of the third person singular, has been restored in the narratives, agreeably to the animated manner of the Italian text.

"Boccace is so licentious in many places," says the short preface to the first edition, "that it requires some management to preserve his wit and humour, and render him tolerably decent. This I have attempted with the loss of two novels, which I judged incapable of such treatment." 'On this "management" the editor has improved, and many words and sentences that trenched on decency, although warranted by the original, he has metamorphosed or expunged, without ceremony or compunction. Much the translator has judiciously omitted, and some things he has treated with a freedom of translation that might be justly reprehended; but, holding it not less wise than fit not to assume the character of an index, *claramque facem præferre pudendis*, the editor neglects to point out the former, and, not wishing to undertake an invidious and tedious task, passes over the latter unnoticed. The interest and effect of the story are never diminished by the last, and where they suffer by the first, it is a sacrifice at the shrine of modesty, and will not only be excused, but commended, by those from whom alone it is fame and honour to receive praise.'

Every advocate for the purity of public and private morals will applaud these sentiments; and we could even have pardoned the editor had he been more liberal of his castigations.

When we reflect that Boccaccio ranks so highly on the rolls of European literature, we cannot refrain from expressing our astonishment that so few details concerning his life and character have descended to our days. The present editor has spared neither judgment nor labour in the selection of his biographical notices; for he has culled from many and respectable sources; yet the amount of authentic and interesting particulars may be comprized in a narrow compass.

Giovanni Boccaccio was born at *Certaldo*, in Tuscany, in the year 1313. In his earliest application to learning, he gave proofs of an extraordinary genius: but his father, who was a commercial man, and by no means in affluent circumstances, placed him with a Florentine merchant, in whose house he continued six years, displaying more ability than satisfaction in the details of business. At his father's request, he next applied to the study of the canon-law:—but nothing could check his decided propensity to poetry and philosophy; and, after having wasted nearly twelve years of his youth in reluctant and thankless drudgery, he at length, on his father's death, threw off all restraint, eagerly addicted himself to the perusal of the poets, and became the disciple of the celebrated Petrarch. The excellence of his master's sonnets, which he despaired of attaining, prompted him to commit all his poetry to the flames, except the *Teseïde*, a singular production, composed in the octave stanza,

stanza, and on the birth of which he flattered himself that the Muses had deigned to smile. As the favors of the Muses, however, are not synonymous with those of Fortune, Boccaccio soon exhausted his patrimony, and stood in need of the charity of others. Petrarch, who had often relieved his distresses, bequeathed to him in his will 'fifty florins for a winter suit, that he might follow his studies commodiously.'

Though honoured and respected in Florence, and appointed by the state to negociate the return of his master, Petrarch, he not only failed in his mission, but was easily induced to quit Tuscany during the prevalence of party spirit, and to ramble over various parts of Italy. At Naples, he was received with kindness and distinction by king Robert. 'He fell greatly in love with that Prince's natural daughter, which considerably prolonged his stay at Naples. It is, perhaps, worthy of note, that by Dioneus, Boccaccio represents himself; and by Fiammetta, his mistress, Mary of Arragon, this natural daughter of Robert, king of Naples.'

When the rage of Faction had subsided in Florence, he returned to that city, but soon left it again, in order that he might enjoy the quiet of Certaldo. There he expired, in 1375, in consequence of a complaint in his stomach, occasioned by intense application to study.—Even of these few particulars, the truth of some is disputed by able and discerning writers.

According to Villani, Boccaccio was somewhat corpulent, and was remarked for his portly stature and cheerful countenance. He delighted and excelled in gay and polished conversation, 'and gained many friends, but not one that succoured and assisted him in his need.'

Besides the *Teseïde*, he left many Italian verses, which convey no very favourable idea of his talents for poetry. His Latin compositions, which are also numerous, are generally allowed to be crude and devoid of elegance. His prose writings in his native tongue, on the other hand, constantly delight us with the variety of his invention, and the copiousness and gracefulness of his style. They are intitled *Il Filocolo*, *La Fiammetta*, *l'Ameto*, *Il Laberinto d'Amore*, *Il Comento di Dante*, and *Il Decamerone*. The plan of this last mentioned work is very distinctly mentioned in the Introduction. A dreadful pestilence raged in Florence in 1348. After having detailed the horrors of its ravages, the author proceeds to mention that seven young ladies and three young gentlemen of their acquaintance agreed to retire into the country, and to dissipate grief and gloomy apprehensions by indulging in innocent pastime and gaiety. One of their principal sources of entertainment, during the heat of the day, was the recital of tales, or *novelle*; and these tales, with little accompanying

companying incidents, by way of prelude or conclusion, form the contents of the Ten Days' Entertainment.

While we admire the diversity of wit and humour, which characterize these stories, we are compelled to lament the indecent complexion of those narratives which the depraved taste of the age could applaud without a blush.—Having already stated the views of the *reforming* editor of the version now on our table, it only remains that we select a specimen from the few passages which are not open to reprehension on the score of indelicacy:

THE FIFTH DAY.

NOVEL V.

Guidotto da Cremona dying, left a daughter to the care of Giacomino da Pavia. Giannole di Severino and Minghino di Mingole are both in love with her, and fight on her account, when she is known to be Giannole's sister, and is married to Minghino.

'Every one laughed at the story of the nightingale, when the queen turned to Philostratus, and said, "If you gave us concern with your subject of yesterday, you have made ample amends by your last story, therefore you shall hear no more of it." She then turned to Neiphile, who began in this manner: As Philostratus lays his scene in Romagna, I intend to have my novel also from thence. In the city then of Fano dwelt two lombards, one named Guidotto da Cremona, and the other Giacomino da Pavia, both advanced in years, and men who had lived as soldiers all their days. When Guidotto being at the point of death, and having no son, nor friend, in whom he put greater confidence than in Giacomino, after settling all his affairs, he left to his care a daughter of about ten years of age, with the management of his whole substance. In the mean time the city of Faenza, which had been long embroiled in wars and confusion, being now brought into a more flourishing state, and every one that pleased having leave to return; it chanced that Giacomino, who had formerly lived there, and liked the place, went back with all his effects, carrying this young lady along with him, whom he loved and treated as his own child, and who, as she grew up, became the most celebrated beauty in the whole city, and as accomplished in all respects as she was fair. On which account she began to be admired by divers young gentlemen, but two especially of equal fortunes were so much in love, that an utter hatred commenced between them for her sake; one was called Giannole di Severino, and the other Minghino di Mingole. Either of these gentlemen would gladly have married her, she being now fifteen; but finding themselves rejected by her friends, they resolved to try other means of obtaining her. Giacomino had in his house an old maid servant, and a man called Crivello, a facetious, as well as an honest person, with whom Giannole was acquainted, to whom he made known his love, offering at the same time a great reward, if, by his assistance, he should in any way obtain his desire. Said Crivello, "Sir, I can do nothing more for you, than when my master is gone

out to sup any where, to bring you where she is: for were I to put in a word for you she would never give me the hearing: if you like this, I dare promise you so far, afterwards you may do what you think most proper." Giannole told him he desired no more. On the other part Minghino made his court to the maid, who had delivered several messages to the lady in his favour, and given her a good opinion of him: she had also undertaken to introduce him the first evening that Giacomino happened to be abroad. Soon after this it happened that Giacomino was invited out by Crivello's contrivance, who immediately gave notice to Giannole, and agreed with him to come, upon giving a certain sign when he would find the door open. In like manner the maid, being unacquainted with this, informed Minghino of the same thing, adding, that, upon observing such a token, he should then come into the house. In the evening the two lovers, knowing nothing of one another, but yet, each jealous of his rival, came with some friends armed for their greater security. Minghino waited at a friend's in the neighbourhood to watch for the sign, whilst Giannole, with his people, stood at a little distance from the house. Now Crivello and the maid were contriving to send each other out of the way. He said then to her, "Why do not you go to bed? What are you doing about the house?" The maid said again, "Why do not you go to your master, you have had your supper? What do you stay for then?" But neither of them was able to send the other away. Crivello at last knowing the time to be come that he had appointed, said to himself, "What need I care for this woman? If she will not hold her tongue, I will find a way to make her." Giving the signal then he went to open the door, when Giannole, with two of his companions, immediately rushed in, and finding the lady in the hall, they seized, and were going to carry her off: the lady however defended herself as well as she could, crying out very much, as did also the maid. Minghino perceiving this, ran thither with his party, and seeing them bear her away, they drew their swords, and called out aloud, "Traitors, ye are all dead men; it shall never be so. What violence is this?" And with these words fell pell-mell upon them. The neighbourhood also was soon up in arms, and blaming those proceedings, joined with Minghino. Therefore, after a long skirmish, Minghino took the lady from Giannole, and brought her back to Giacomino's house. Nor was the fray at an end till the city-officers came and seized many of the persons concerned, and amongst the rest Minghino, Giannole, and Crivello, and carried them to prison. As soon as things were a little quieted, and Giacomino returned, he became very uneasy at what had happened, till hearing that she was not in fault, he was better satisfied; but resolved, for fear of the like accidents hereafter, to marry her as soon as possible. In the morning the parents to them both having heard the truth of the story, and being sensible of the evil which might ensue to both the young gentlemen, who were in custody, should Giacomino poceed rigorously against them, they came therefore to him, and entreated him gently not to regard so much the injury which he had received from the little discretion of the young men, as the esteem and friendship which, they hoped, he bore towards themselves, who now requested this favour at his hands; submitting themselves, and the youths also

also who had committed the offence, to make any satisfaction he should insist upon. Giacomino, who had seen much of the world, and was a person of understanding, answered in few words, "Gentlemen were I in my own country, as I am now in yours, I hold myself so much your friend, that I should do this or any thing else to oblige you; but in this respect I am the more ready to do it, as the offence is now committed against yourselves. For this lady is not, as many may think, either of Cremona or Pavia, but of Faenza: although neither myself, nor she, nor yet the person who bequeathed her to me, knew whose daughter she was; every thing then shall be done according to your desire." The honest men hearing that she was of Faenza, began to wonder; and after thanking him for his gracious reply, they desired he would be so kind to tell them in what manner she came into his hands, and how he knew that she was of Faenza. He replied, Guidotto da Cremona was my very good friend and companion, and as he lay upon his death-bed, he told me, that when this city was taken by the emperor Frederick, and given to be pillaged by the soldiers, he and some others went into a house full of rich booty, which was forsaken by the owners, only this girl, who seemed then but two years old, was left behind, and she seeing him go up stairs, called him Papa; for which reason he took pity on her, and brought her away with every thing that was of value in the house to Fano; when dying there, he left her in charge to me, desiring, when she should be of age, that I would marry her, and give what was her own, by way of fortune: since therefore she has been grown up, I have met with nobody that I thought a fit match for her, otherwise I would willingly dispose of her, lest the like accident should happen again, that befel us last night." At this time there was present one Gulielmino da Medicina, who was with Guidotto in that expedition, and knew very well whose house it was that he had plundered, and seeing that person in the company, he accosted him and said, "Bernarbuccio, do you hear what Giacomino has been talking of?"—"Yes," he replied, "and I am now thinking about it; for in that confusion I remember to have lost a daughter about the same age that he speaks of."——"Then," said Gulielmino, "it is certainly the same; for I was there at that time, and heard Guidotto relate how he plundered such a house, when I knew it must be yours: see, therefore, if you can call to mind any mark that she had, whereby you may know her; for she is plainly your daughter." He then remembered that she had a scar like a cross under her left ear, and he desired Giacomino to shew him to his house, that he might convince himself by seeing her. Accordingly, he brought him thither very willingly, when the very first sight of her put him in mind of her mother; but, not regarding that, he told Giacomino, that he should take it as a favour if he might turn aside the hair from her left ear; which being permitted, he found the same mark, and was convinced that she was his daughter: he then said to Giacomino, "Brother, this is my daughter; it was my house that Guidotto pillaged, when this child was forgotten by her mother, in our great hurry, and we supposed that she was burnt along with the house." The lady hearing this, and seeing him to be a person of

gravity, moved also perhaps by a secret instinct, easily gave credit to it, and both of them burst into tears. Bernarbuccio then sent for her mother and her other relations, as also her sisters and brethren, when relating what had happened, he carried her home to the great joy of them all, as well as satisfaction of Giacomino. Whilst the governor of the city, who was a worthy man, knowing that Giannole, whom he had in custody, was son to Bernarbuccio and the lady's own brother, resolved to overlook the crime he had committed. Conversing then with Bernarbuccio and Giacomino about it, he undertook to make peace between Giannole and Minghino, to whom, by the consent of all parties, he gave her to wife, and set all the other people at liberty. Minghino then made a most sumptuous wedding, and carried his bride home in great state, where they lived happily together for a long course of years.'

As many of Boccaccio's tales may be traced to Greek or Latin sources, or to the recitations of the old Romances and Troubadours, a short preliminary comment on each, discriminating what is original from what is borrowed or imitated, would have been an acceptable critical treat.

The typography of these volumes is correct, and neatly executed, but an index is wanting to complete them. Muir.

ART. X. *Essays Political, Economical, and Philosophical.* By Benjamin Count of Rumford, &c. &c. Vols. II. and III. 8vo. 19s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies *.

THE greater part of the essays which compose these volumes, as well as that which preceded them †, appeared originally in a detached form, and most of them have already been noticed by us. The first seven essays, and the 1st part of the 10th, ‡ have successively fallen under our review; and the 8th and 9th are extracted, nearly without alteration, from the former volumes of the Philosophical Transactions. At present, therefore, we shall commence with an account of the 2d part of the 10th essay.

Of this essay, the general subject is the construction of kitchen fire-places and kitchen utensils; the first part was chiefly occupied with the Count's improvements in the construction of fire-places, and he now proceeds to propose a variety of alterations in the utensils employed for culinary purposes. As it will be impossible to understand any description of the proposed apparatus, without the accurate plates which accom-

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* We regret that accident has long delayed the appearance of this article.

† See Rev. Vol. xliii. N. S. p. 97.

‡ See Rev. Vols. xxiv. xxvii. and xxxi. N. S.

pany them, we shall be obliged to refer to the work itself for all information of this kind; and we can do no more than announce to our readers the nature and object of the various contrivances detailed in this essay, specifying more particularly those which seem to us the most worthy of attention.

The process of roasting meat by an open fire is attended with more trouble to the servant, and with a greater waste of fuel, than any other operation of cookery. It is likewise, in the opinion of our author, an injudicious method of applying heat, since the outside of the meat quickly becomes scorched and dried, so as to prevent the heat from sufficiently penetrating into it, and acting on the interior parts. To remedy these defects, Count Rumford invented an apparatus, which he calls a Roaster. It is, in its general form, like a cylindrical oven, but that part of the contrivance which enables it to *brown the meat*, and thus to give it the distinguishing character of *roasting* in opposition to *baking*, consists in throwing over its surface, in the latter part of the process, a strong current of hot air. From the testimonies which are adduced in its favor, we cannot doubt that the roaster will answer the purpose for which it was intended, and we hope to see it gradually come into use; more particularly as the author repeatedly assures us that meat cooked in this manner is 'more delicate, more juicy, more savoury, and higher flavored, than when roasted in the common way, on a spit, by an open fire.' The Count particularly expatiates on the 'uncommon delicacy' of the fat part of the meat cooked in the roaster. 'When good mutton is roasted in this manner, its fat is exquisitely sweet and well tasted; and when eaten with currant jelly can hardly be distinguished from the fat of the very best venison.' These are arguments in favour of the new apparatus which no one can resist. The other advantages, which it holds out, are the small quantity of fuel required to dress the meat, and the little trouble which it gives the cook; whose duty is only to pay occasional attention to the regulation of the fire, and, for a short time before the process is concluded, to open the stoppers which admit the current of hot air. Yet, notwithstanding these high praises, and these strong recommendations, we know that it has not been easy to render public opinion favorable to these roasters, when brought into use; and that, strange as it may seem, from the nature of the case, the most difficulty has occurred in teaching cooks how to manage them, and in persuading them to adopt the *innovation*.

By a little alteration in the construction and management of the roaster, it may be converted into an apparatus nearly equally useful for both roasting and baking; it then constitutes what the

the Count calls a *roasting oven.* The description of its different parts, and the method of using it, are detailed with the accuracy and minuteness which characterize this author's writings. He next offers some remarks on ovens in general, and the method of improving their construction. When treating on this subject, he mentions a circumstance which will excite some surprize, that, when meat is boiled by having the pan containing it placed in a hot oven, the water in which the meat was immersed will be found nearly pure, almost without flavor or impregnation; although the meat itself is completely done, and even, in the opinion of the author, is more agreeable to the taste than when boiled in the usual manner. For this singular fact, he accounts by supposing that, when the heat is applied equally to all parts of the fluid, it remains nearly at rest; and that the agitation, into which the water is thrown in the usual process of boiling, when the heat is applied to the bottom or side of the pan, causes the fibres of the meat to be separated from each other, and the particles to be mixed with and suspended in the fluid. On the same principle, he attempts to explain why the French nation has been remarked for its fondness for soups.

'It is frequently useful, and is always amusing to trace the differences in the customs and usages of different countries to their causes. The French have for ages been remarkable for their fondness for soups, and for their skill in preparing them: now as national habits of this kind must necessarily originate at a very early period of society, and must depend on peculiar local circumstances, may not the prevalence of the custom of eating soup in France be ascribed to the open chimney fire-places and wood-fires, which have ever been common in that country?

'It is certain that in the infancy of society, before the arts had made any considerable progress, families cooked their victuals by the same fire which warmed them. Kitchens then were not known; and the utensils used in cooking were extremely simple, an earthern pot perhaps set down before the fire. We have just seen, that with such an apparatus, soups of the very best qualities would naturally be produced; and it is not surprising, that a whole nation should acquire a fondness for a species of food, not only excellent in its kind, but cheap, nutritious, and wholesome, and easily prepared.

'Had coals been the fuel used in France, it is not likely that soups would have been so generally adopted in that country; for a common coal fire is not favourable for making good soups; although with a little management the very best soups may be made, and every other process of cookery be performed, *in the highest perfection,* with any kind of fuel.'

The 3d part of the 10th essay is chiefly occupied with the consideration of the best materials for making kitchen utensils.

At present, copper is generally adopted: but objections have been frequently urged against it, and are forcibly stated in this work, founded on the poisonous quality which that metal possesses, when suffered to acquire the least portion of rust. So far as health is concerned, iron is a sufficiently good substitute: but the difficulty of keeping it clean is very great; and it is apt to communicate to the food both an unpleasant colour, and an astringent taste. To prevent this evil, the Count proposes that cast iron only shall be employed; it is less liable to rust; and, by proper management, it may have its inside coated with a solid crust of brown oxyde, which will not communicate any taste or color to the food, and will prevent the metal from being farther corroded. On the whole, however, earthen vessels are recommended as, in many respects, the most proper to be employed: yet these are frequently covered with a kind of glazing, into the composition of which lead enters, and which is liable to be affected by acids; and though this objection to the use of earthen vessels may be removed by their being glazed with common salt, still their brittlenesss prevents them from being employed in those operations, in which they are to be exposed to sudden alternations of heat and cold. This defect, however, is in some measure counteracted by constructing the vessels as nearly as possible in the globular form, and making them as thin as may be consistent with the use to which they are intended to be applied.

This chapter concludes with a minute account of the shape and construction of different kinds of pans, adapted to the close fire-places, which are recommended in the first part of the essay. The descriptions are accompanied by a number of wood engravings, and are thus rendered easily and completely intelligible.

The next chapter is devoted to some remarks on cooking by steam. The author observes that, in the usual way in which this process is conducted, there is an unnecessary expenditure of heat, in consequence of the vessels and tubes being exposed to the air: but this loss of heat is prevented by having the steam vessel coated with wood, and by the adoption of a contrivance which he calls a *steam rim*, to prevent the escape of the steam round the edge of the lid. This invention consists in a duplicature of the upper part of the sides of the vessel into a kind of groove, and in a circular rim fixed to the under surface of the lid which fits into this groove. The Count points out, at some length, the advantages of steam cooking, in which we are much inclined to agree with him; and he enlarges, as usual, on the superior goodness of meat boiled in this manner.

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In the 9th chapter, the author proceeds in his account of various kitchen utensils, and particularly directs the attention to the different kind of boilers. He describes what he calls *an universal kitchen boiler*, in which several articles may be dressed at the same time, without interfering with each other, or consuming a large quantity of fuel. Hence he is led to propose a new method of warming rooms, by means of a *steam stove*. It consists of a vessel in which water is to be boiled over a closed fire place; above the boiler, a large reservoir is placed to receive the steam; and by the heat thrown out from this vessel, the air in the room is warmed. There are situations in which, we conceive, an apparatus of this kind might be convenient and economical: but we have no expectation nor desire of seeing it substituted in our apartments for the open grate. The Count describes, at some length, different kinds of portable furnaces; proposes a new form for tea kettles; and occupies a chapter with an account of cheap utensils for the use of the poor.

We were struck with the force of the following remarks, on the method of supplying the poor with food in times of scarcity; since the plan proposed seems calculated to obviate many of those evils which were experienced on former occasions of this nature.

'There is always much trouble and inconvenience, and frequently much danger in collecting together great numbers of idle people: and these assemblies are never so likely to produce mischievous effects as in times of public calamity, when it is peculiarly difficult to preserve order and subordination among the lower and most needy classes of society.

'I have often trembled at seeing the immense crowds of poor people, without occupation, who were sometimes collected together at the doors of the great public kitchens in London during the scarcity of the year 1800.

'Two or three hundred people may, without any considerable inconvenience, be supplied with food from the same kitchen; but when public kitchens are not connected with asylums, or houses or schools of industry, where the poor assemble to work during the day; and when there is no other object in view, but merely to enable the poor to purchase good and wholesome food at the lowest prices possible, without any interference at all with their domestic employments or concerns, it appears to me that it would always be best to select from amongst the poor a certain number of honest and intelligent persons, and encourage them to prepare and sell to their poor neighbours, nnder proper regulation and inspection, such kinds of food, and at such prices, as should be prescribed by those who have the charge of providing for the relief of the poor.

'A plan of this sort might be executed at any time on the pressure of the moment, without the smallest delay, and almost without

either trouble or expence, if each parish, or community, were to provide and keep ready in store, a certain number of portable kitchen furnaces, with boilers belonging to them, to be lent out occasionally to those who should be willing to undertake to cook and sell victuals to the poor on the terms that should be proposed.

'If these boilers were made to hold from 8 to 10 gallons, they would serve for preparing food for 60 to 70 persons; and as they would require very little fuel, and so little attendance, that a woman who should undertake the management of one of them, might perform that service with great ease, by devoting to it each day the labour of half an hour, and giving to it occasionally a few moments of attention, which would hardly interrupt her in her common domestic employments; this method of preparing food would be very economical—perhaps more so than any other;—and, with proper inspection, it would be little liable to abuse.'

The remaining essays, though not deficient in useful observations, are of less importance than those which we have already examined. The 11th contains directions respecting the construction of open fire-places; in which the author endeavours to correct the mistakes that have been committed by many persons, who have attempted to put in practice the method recommended in the 4th essay. The subsequent observation on the way in which rooms are warmed by artificial heat, though not new, is expressed with so much clearness, as almost to give it the interest of an original remark:

'In all our reasonings and speculations relative to the heating of rooms by means of open chimney fires, we must never forget that it is the *room that heats the air*, and not the air that heats the room.

'The rays that are sent off from the burning fuel generate heat, only *when* and *where* they are *stopped*, or *absorbed*, consequently they generate no heat in the air in the room, in passing through it, because they *pass through it*, and are not *stopped* by it, but, striking against the walls of the room, or against any solid body in the room, these rays are *there* stopped and absorbed, and it is *there* that the heat found in the room is *generated*. The air in the room is afterwards heated by coming into contact with these solid bodies. Many capital mistakes have arisen from inattention to this most important fact.'

The 12th essay consists of 'observations concerning the salubrity of warm rooms in cold weather.' Here the author forcibly illustrates the bad effects that must result from the present method in which our apartments are generally warmed. A large open fire-place, containing a great quantity of burning fuel, throws out a copious stream of heat, which scorches the part of the body turned towards it, while the temperature of the other side is chilled by the rapid currents of cold air which are traversing the room in all directions, in order to supply the enormous waste of air consumed in the chimney. We must

must be at once sensible of the superior advantage of a fire-place, in which less heat indeed is generated, but by which it is enabled to diffuse itself more equably through the room, and a smaller portion of it is carried up the chimney. The Count also endeavours to prove, from the example of the Swedes and Russians, that the health is not endangered by passing from a very warm room into a very cold atmosphere. We do not feel disposed, at present, to enter into a controversy on this point: but we are of opinion that the liability to take cold, which is so distinguishing a trait in the English constitution, must, at least in some degree, be ascribed to the kind of cloathing employed in this country; which, we believe, is considerably thinner than that which is used in any other climate equally cold.

Essay xiii. contains a recommendation of the practice of warm bathing, and directions for the construction of warm baths. The 14th is on 'the management of fire in closed fire-places;' and the 15th and concluding essay treats on 'the use of steam as a vehicle for transporting heat from one place to another.'

Our readers will perceive that all these essays exhibit the same character with those which constitute the former part of the series. Their grand design is to employ science in increasing the comforts and accommodations of society at large, and particularly of the poor; and the talents of Count Rumford are, in many respects, peculiarly well adapted for the accomplishment of this object. His ideas are clear and definite; and his manner of expressing them is unusually forcible and perspicuous. He is indefatigable in the pursuit of his favorite object; and when he meets with difficulties, he is rather impelled to make new exertions than to sink under them. His enthusiasm is extreme, and is, indeed, in many cases, altogether disproportionate to the object: but we must recollect that this quality almost necessarily attaches itself to those who endeavour to be reformers, and is perhaps essential to their success. That part of the Count's works, which is most open to censure, is the frequent occurrence of professions of the purity of his motives. If the inventions suggested be really useful, and no views of interest or profit manifest themselves, every candid mind will be sufficiently disposed to bestow on them the tribute of applause and gratitude: but when we observe so much anxiety to establish a claim to patriotism and benevolence, a suspicion is likely to be excited; and it may even be alleged that vanity is the ruling passion, to which the more noble qualities are only subservient.

Bos...k.

ART. XI. *A short Account of the Cause of the Disease in Corn, called by Farmers the Blight, the Mildew, and the Rust.* By Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. 8vo. With a Plate. 2s. Harding. 1805.

EVERY hint suggested by a gentleman of such extensive science, and philosophic industry, as are possessed by Sir Joseph Banks, must no doubt attract the attention of the public; and it may fairly be presumed that, in the inquiry here instituted by him, he will obtain all possible assistance from the experiments and observations of the numerous intelligent agriculturists scattered throughout the counties of Great Britain. By the title of the small pamphlet before us, however, others as well as ourselves will have expectations excited, which the perusal will not fully gratify; since it does not contain a satisfactory account of the cause of the disease in corn commonly called *Smut*, but only an examination for the purpose of investigating the cause.—We do not mean to deny that the ultimate effect is produced by a fungus, for this is indisputable: but what is the cause which induces the plant of corn to afford a nidus, or matrix, for the growth of the seeds of this destructive fungus? The dry-rot is occasioned also by a fungus: but all deals are not in a state calculated to afford the seeds of the fungus, by which the dry-rot is produced, an opportunity to vegetate. It is only in certain situations that what may be called the dry-rot-fungus will flourish. The same may be asserted, we apprehend, of the parasitic plant which preys on the corn-plant, and converts the grain of corn into a puff-ball. The important question is, what is the pre-disposing cause of the disease called smut? and here the pamphlet of the celebrated President of the Royal Society affords us no assistance.

We know that trees, whose circulation is obstructed, and whose juices are inspissated, are attacked by insects which, when killed and beginning to rot, produce fungi: but neither the insects nor the fungi are to be regarded as the primary source of the evil which destroyed them. The case is the same, we are inclined to believe, with the smut in wheat. Cold nights, when the wheat is in bloom, or wet seasons, may so injure the corn as to afford the necessary pabulum for the parasite-plant, which Sir Joseph describes, to take root and vegetate; when, perhaps, independently of the operation of these causes, the seeds of the fungi would float in the atmosphere without effect. It has been remarked that, when the season for the blowing of the wheat is favourable, and no violent rains or storms succeed to beat it down or *lodge* it (as it is called), the harvest is abundant: but that cold nights, and subsequent heavy rains, will occasion light and smutty corn. Sometimes the stalk is spotted, and

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produces those small fungi which Sir J. B. exhibits in the plate, without smut being in the ear; and hence it is evident that the parasite-plant does not always propagate itself up to the grain. We regard it as a defect in the plate before us, microscopically representing the several figures of the fungus, that no view is given of the *smut* itself, at it appears in the ear of corn, where the great mischief is produced. Sir Joseph, by the assistance of Mr. Bauer, botanical painter to his Majesty, has exhibited magnified delineations of a piece of infected wheat-straw, of the parasitic plant which infects the wheat, of the epidermis of the straw, shewing the large pores which receive the seeds of the parasite, &c.; and as far as this delineation goes, it is of importance: but this miscroscopic discovery is only a part of the *desideratum*. Sir Joseph, indeed, states a fact which may be thought to militate against our hypothesis, and which merits some attention:

'It has been long admitted by farmers, though scarcely credited by botanists, that wheat in the neighbourhood of a barberry bush seldom escapes the Blight. The village of Rollesby in Norfolk, where barberries abound, and wheat seldom succeeds, is called by the opprobrious appellation of Mildew Rollesby. Some observing men have of late attributed this very perplexing effect to the farina of the flowers of the barberry, which is in truth yellow, and resembles in some degree the appearance of the rust, or what is presumed to be the Blight in its early state.

'It is, however, notorious to all botanical observers, that the leaves of the barberry are very subject to the attack of a yellow parasitic fungus, larger, but otherwise much resembling, the rust in corn.

'Is it not more than possible, that the parasitic fungus of the barberry and that of wheat are one and the same species, and that the seed transferred from the barberry to the corn is one cause of the disease? Misletoe, the parasitic plant with which we are the best acquainted, delights most to grow on the apple and hawthorn, but it flourishes occasionally on trees widely differing in their nature from both of these: in the Home Park, at Windsor, misletoe may be seen in abundance on the lime trees planted there in avenues. If this conjecture is founded, another year will not pass without its being confirmed by the observations of inquisitive and sagacious farmers.'

Though we do not agree with this philosopher in his conjecture next hazarded, the importance of the subject, added to such high authority, constrains us to state it:

'Smut is believed * to begin early in the spring, and first to appear on the leaves of wheat in the form of rust, or orange-coloured powder; at this season, the fungus will, in all probability, require as many weeks

'* This, though believed, is not dogmatically asserted, because Fonana, the best writer on the subject, asserts that the yellow and the dark coloured blight are different species of fungi,'

for its progress from infancy to puberty, as it does days during the heats of autumn; but a very few plants of wheat, thus infected, are quite sufficient, if the fungus is permitted to ripen its seed, to spread the malady over a field, or indeed over a whole parish.

'The chocolate-coloured Blight is little observed till the corn is approaching very nearly to ripeness: it appears then in the field in spots, which increase very rapidly in size, and are in calm weather somewhat circular, as if the disease took its origin from a central position.

'May it not happen, then, that the fungus is brought into the field in a few stalks of infected straw, uncorrupted among the mass of dung laid in the ground at the time of sowing?'

Whatever injures the straw, and prevents the rise of sap, will produce lean corn: therefore the disease here noticed in the stalk may account for this phænomenon; and it is useful also to know that corn which is not productive of flour is nevertheless valuable as seed-corn. Sir Joseph Banks's suggestions on this subject ought not to be overlooked by farmers:

'It cannot be improper in this place to remark, that although the seeds of wheat are rendered, by the exhausting power of the fungus, so lean and shrivelled that scarce any flour fit for the manufacture of bread can be obtained by grinding them, these very seeds will, except, perhaps, in the very worst cases*, answer the purpose of seed corn as well as the fairest and plumpest sample that can be obtained, and, in some respects better; for as a bushel of much blighted corn will contain one third at least more grains in number, than a bushel of plump corn, three bushels of such corn will go as far in sowing land, as four bushels of large grain.'—

'It is customary to set aside or to purchase for seed corn, the boldest and plumpest samples that can be obtained; that is, those that contain the most flour; but this is unnecessary waste of human subsistence; the smallest grains, such as are sifted out before the wheat is carried to market, and either consumed in the farmer's family, or given to his poultry, will be found, by experience, to answer the purpose of propagating the sort from whence they sprung, as effectually as the largest.

'Every ear of wheat is composed of a number of cups placed alternately on each side of the straw; the lower ones contain, according to circumstances, three or four grains, nearly equal in size, but towards the top of the ear, where the quantity of nutriment is diminished by the more ample supply of those cups that are nearer the root, the third or fourth grain in a cup is frequently defrauded of its proportion, and becomes shrivelled and small. These small grains, which are rejected by the miller, because they do not contain flour enough for his purpose, have nevertheless an ample abundance for all purposes of vegetation, and as fully partake of the sap, (or blood, as we should call it in animals,) of the kind which produced them, as the fairest and ful-

'* 80 grains of the most blighted wheat of the last year, that could be obtained, were sown in pots in the hothouse; of these seventy-two produced healthy plants, a loss of 10 per cent. only.'

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lest grain that can be obtained from the bottoms of the lower cups, by the wasteful process of beating the sheaves.'

We regard this little pamphlet as the commencement of an important investigation, in which the members of the Royal Society will probably take a part; and which we particularly recommend to the accurate and diligent examination of Mr. A. Knight.

Mo-y.

ART. XII. *Observations on the Poor Laws, and on the Management of the Poor in Great Britain,* arising from a Consideration of the Returns now before Parliament. By the Right Hon. George Rose, M.P. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard. 1805.

THE condition of the Poor, the operation of the Poor Laws, and the mode in which the affairs of the Poor are conducted, are subjects which eminently demand the attention of Parliament; not only because certain evils exist in the system, but because those evils are known to have increased, and to be still increasing. From heavy parochial assessments, the Poor obtain inadequate relief; and both those on whom, and those for whom, the tax is levied, equally complain. Workhouses and houses of Industry are proved to have been blundering expedients,—glaring errors in the science of political economy. The returns before Parliament demonstrate that their utility bears no proportion to their expence; and that a more simple, less ostentatious, and less unnatural system of management ought to be adopted. We are happy to find that Mr. Rose, who has most sedulously studied this subject, is of the same opinion with ourselves; and we hope that his judicious observations will invite our Senators to appreciate the value of the facts stated in the Parliamentary Returns, and to make those alterations in our Poor Laws which the nature of the case requires.

This statesman has not only delivered his sentiments on the most material topics of inquiry, but has greatly abridged the labour of his brother Members, by arranging, in a table at the end of the pamphlet, the results deducible from those Returns of the several counties, which now lie for consideration on the table of the House of Commons. Though we cannot conveniently insert the whole of this interesting table, nor give the results drawn from each county, we shall abstract the general statements as they affect the whole of England and Wales. The table is divided into 17 columns. The 1st gives for the total population of England and Wales, 8,872,980; 2d, the number of square miles, 55,833; 3d, the number of inhabitants in each square mile, 152; 4th, rental on which the parochial

rochial assessment is made, 24,129,134*l.*; 5th, rental on which the tax on property is collected, 33,975,643*l.*; 6th, number of parishioners (including their children) relieved in each 100 of the population, 12; 7th, number of parishioners relieved in workhouses, 83,462; 8th, *how much per head* in *workhouses*, 12*l.* 3*s.* 6¾! 9th, number of parishioners (including their children) relieved out of workhouses, 956,248; 10th, *at how much per head* out of *workhouses*, 3*l.* 3*s.* 7½*d.*; 11th, number of parishioners relieved in and out of workhouses, 1,039,716; 12th, at how much per head in and out of workhouses (including law expences, removals, &c.) 3*l.* 17*s.* 9½*d.*; 13th, average per head (on the population) of total sum raised by rates, 12*s.* 0¾*d.* 14th, average per head (on the population) of *expenditure on account of the Poor*, 9*s.* 7½*d.* 15th, number of parishes in which the Poor are stated in the returns to be farmed or maintained under contract, 293; 16th, number of parishes which maintain their Poor under special acts of parliament, 774; 17th, number of members of Friendly Societies, 704,350.

These facts speak so strongly, that they require very little comment. How great is the disproportion of expence of a pauper *in* and of one *out* of the workhouse! What a difference between the sum raised by rates and the money actually expended on account of the Poor! We know that sums to the militia, county-rates, &c. are taken out of the poors'-rate; and it is also to be considered that it is farther diminished by other charges. Mr. Rose informs us that, in 1803, of the 4,267,000*l.* expended on the Poor, 190,000*l.* were spent in law-suits, overseers' expences, &c.

It might not be wise nor just wholly to abolish the poor laws, and to leave the indigent portion of the community to the precarious resource of private charity: but measures might be adopted to lessen the hardships under which the Poor at present labour, and at the same time to diminish the public expenditure on their account. The laws relative to Settlement might be altered, workhouse-establishments might be discouraged, the relief of the Poor at their own cottages might be promoted, and the Plan of Friendly Societies might be greatly enlarged.

Mr. Rose's sentiments will be seen in the subjoined extract:

"It appears, by the returns, that paupers in workhouses cost about 12*l.* 3*s.* 6¾*d.** each annually, throughout England, and other parishioners

* There is reason to believe this is much below the true average, as in many places there are persons residing in tenements erected by, or the property of, the parish, called workhouses, who do not live under the discipline of such houses; they merely reside therein, rent free,

rishioners relieved out of workhouses about 3*l.* 3*s.* 7½*d.* * Where parishes, therefore, do not compel *all* applicants for relief to go into the workhouse, the loss to the public may be estimated at about 9*l.* per head on the persons so shut up, creating an augmentation of the Poor's Rate to a very large amount.

'The avowed policy of workhouses, in many instances, is a mixture of maintenance, and punishment by imprisonment; hoping thus, by deterring application for relief, that so few will apply as to make the heavier expence *per head* for a smaller number in the workhouse a lighter burden on the parish, than affording relief out of the house to a greater number; which can only be corrected by the interposition of magistrates, under the 36 Geo III. ch. 23.

'If it shall be thought right to provide for adding something to the earnings of persons in advanced periods of life, without shutting them up in workhouses, which I am persuaded would be as economical as humane, a more favourable attention may possibly be thought due to the Friendly Societies, the members of which have a very strong claim on the public at large: it is now ascertained that there are of these in England alone (exclusive of very numerous societies in Scotland) upwards of seven hundred thousand of both sexes, although the act I had the happiness of introducing for their encouragement and security has not been passed more than eleven years; before which, their establishments were precarious, and their numbers comparatively small. When it is considered that these are composed chiefly of persons supporting themselves entirely by their labour, associated for the express purpose of relieving each other during sickness, out of the hard earnings of that labour in periods of their lives when they usually have strength to do so; but whose funds, arising from the very limited sums it is possible for them to spare, cannot be sufficient to enable allowances being made to members who may live to very advanced ages, in their progress to which the ability to work gradually fails; it may not in such cases be too much to expect that there should be some contribution, as of right, from the parishes, towards the maintenance of such persons. That, I believe, would be consistent with the wisest policy, as well as with humanity; for if there could be secured to the laborious poor, entering into these societies, an independent maintenance, in the event of its pleasing God to give them a length of life beyond the strength necessary for their avocations, and they could consequently be freed from the apprehension of confinement and separation from every thing dear to them in their old age, they would, to an infinitely greater extent, become members of them, and exonerate the parishes from any charge for their maintenance in sickness till that period, at which, only a small propor-

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free, and are relieved as other paupers are out of workhouses. This may serve to explain the apparent disparity of expenditure per head on persons in workhouses in several counties, and will make the general rate of such expenditure stated in the abstract, greatly below the truth.

'* This supposes about 2*s.* a head to be given to the paupers, not parishioners, who must have been chiefly vagrants.'

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tion of them arrive. It is hardly possible for those who have not frequently conversed with persons of this description, to form an idea how much such a prospect would contribute to their happiness and comfort. A practicable arrangement for that, too, I know would be attended with very great difficulty; but, as in the other part of the subject, the attempt seems worthy to be made.'

Under the present circumstances of the empire, and with the facts now furnished to us, it may be presumed that nothing will divert parliament from a full review of the laws relative to the Poor.

Mo.y.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For APRIL, 1805.

POLITICAL.

Art. 13. *A Political and Military Survey.* 8vo. 2s. Carpenter. 1805.

EUROPE is, no doubt, in a most aukward predicament: but it is more easy to descant on the evils which result from the enormous preponderance of France, than to revive a coalition among surrounding states, for the purpose of diminishing her power, and of newly arranging the possessions of sovereigns, in such a manner as to secure permanent peace. This writer, who is very romantic in his speculations, endeavours to rouse every power in Europe to join us in the present war; and, assured that the contest must terminate gloriously for the allies, he prescribes the new organization which ought to take place on the humiliation of the enemy. In his zeal for partitioning and allotting the different states and possessions of European powers, he does not omit artfully to insinuate the importance of the restoration of the Bourbons to the throne of France; and, unrestrained by his motto, *non licet in bello bis peccare,* he advises us to try the experiment of landing a second army in Brittany, for the purpose of forcing a *victorious* march to Paris. Here, however, in our opinion, his ardour in the royal cause has obliterated his discretion.

The remarks of this writer on the defects of the volunteer system of defence discover some knowlege of military affairs; and his hints with regard to Ireland ought not to be slightly treated: but we do not admire the solicitude which he manifests for disembarking British armies on the continent, to espouse the cause of Louis XVIII. By his account of the politics of Russia, it appears that her ambitious projects relative to the East Indies are as much objects of alarm to us, as those of France, if not more so; and yet we are urged to court the assistance of Russia, and to consent to the enlargement of her territory in the Mediterranean. In short, this warm friend of Louis XVIII. would encourage all nations to enter into the present war, by liberal promises of future remuneration. Will statesmen be caught by such chaff?

Mo.y.

Art. 14. *Thoughts on the Object of a Foreign Subsidy.* By John Wheatley, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies.

The political constitution of Europe having been destroyed, by the vast additions made to the power of France in consequence of the revolutionary war, Mr. Wheatley is solicitous to obtain a general confederation of the independent states, for the avowed purpose of compelling France to renounce her conquests, with the territories unjustly seized, and of making such new arrangements as shall restore the balance of Europe. Previously to our granting any foreign subsidy, this principle, he thinks, should be clearly recognized, and the plan of partition be settled by the confederates. It is recommended by him to divide that proportion of Europe, which is now occupied by the arms of France, into three independent kingdoms; viz. to form Holland and Belgium into one, the inferior states of Germany into a second, and the whole of Italy into a third.—We need not comment on this speculation, since it does not seem an easy thing to bring the courts of Europe to act in concert for the general good.

Mr. W. does not, like the preceding writer, discuss colonial and commercial relations; nor does he, like him, advise us to rush on perilous enterprises: but he advises us to keep our money till we can engage the independent powers to proceed in unison, and with effect, on a well digested plan. Hitherto we have had no success with them; for they appear to suspect our policy to be more selfish than liberal; and that our sole object, in appealing to them to engage in the war, is to find work for the French armies on the Continent, in order that they may be obliged to abandon their plans of invading the British isles, and of annoying our eastern possessions.

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Art. 15. *Letter addressed to the Right Hon. William Pitt, concerning the Establishment of an adequate Provision and Pension for Sailors and Soldiers,* after a certain length of Services, as being the most effectual Plan for recruiting both the Navy and Army, at the present or any future Crisis. By the Hon. and Rev. James Athol Cochrane. 8vo. 6d. Mawman.

The outline of the plan given in this short letter is not less patriotic than humane, as it unites the comfort of the individual with the interest of the public. Among hints which Mr. C. suggests for raising the funds necessary to pension our meritorious sailors, he recommends an appropriate sermon to be annually preached in all the churches and chapels of Great Britain, and a collection made. If the idea were adopted by government, it would not be difficult to establish the funds necessary for its execution.

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Art. 16. *A Letter to Dr. Troy, titular Archbishop of Dublin, on the Coronation of Bonaparte by Pope Pius the Seventh.* By Melancthon. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Hatchard.

In a strain of animated and indignant eloquence, the writer of this philippic (for so it may be termed) stigmatizes the conduct of the supreme Pontiff, who, by the most holy functions of his sacred office, has sanctioned Bonaparte's assumption of the regal and imperial dignities. Nothing, in this author's opinion, should have induced Pius the VIIth. to have consented to such a degradation of himself,

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and of the pontificate; he should have defied the utmost resentment of the usurper in the very plenitude of his power; and he should even have suffered martyrdom, rather than have meanly submitted to be dragged to Paris to act in the solemn farce of unction and coronation. Melancthon, who expresses himself with all the zeal of a papist in support of the dignity and office of the holy father, will admit of no apology to be made for the Pope on this occasion: but we should have thought that, as a Protestant, he would have contemplated his holiness rather as a political than as a sacred character; and that it would have been granted that the circumstances in which he was placed by the subjugation of Italy, and the annihilation of the power of the court of Rome, left him no alternative when the mandate of Bonaparte arrived. Papists and Protestants must be agreed that Pius's journey to Paris was "*sorely against his will*;" that his refusal to be present at the coronation of the French emperor could have answered no purpose, unless he had been supported by the great sovereigns on the continent; and that the only course left to him was to make a virtue of necessity, and endeavour, in consequence of his compliance with the demand of prosperous ambition, to obtain some privileges for the Catholic church lately re-established in France. The Allocution shews that this hope floated in his embarrassed mind.

If, however, contrary to the mildness which he affects by his signature, Melancthon is rather too severe on Pius VII. his argument is strong and conclusive, when he adduces the abject state of the papal see in proof of the weakness of maintaining any connection between the Catholic church of Ireland and the prostituted power and dominion of the Pope. Much good sense is displayed in his reasoning with his catholic fellow subjects, on their intercourse with the court of Rome; and he thinks that this connection should be more than verbally disclaimed, in order to authorize their emancipation. We extremely dislike every thing that savours of illiberality; we deeply feel for the Catholics of Ireland; and we should rejoice if, consistently with the safety of the empire, they were admitted to the full enjoyment of every civil privilege and immunity; but we are aware that the subject has its difficulties; and that their allegiance to the supreme power of the empire may be suspected, while any appeals are made to a power beyond the empire,—to a power which arrogates claims fatal to allegiance itself. This writer suggests a remedy for this evil; a remedy which might allay the fears of the government and of Protestants, and open a safe path for all Irish Catholics to a full and unlimited participation of the blessings of the British constitution. He advises all the Catholic nobility and gentry to make one phalanx of loyalty; and to desire Dr. Troy and his brethren, having the previous approbation of government to legalize their proceedings, to assemble a *national synod*.

'You have,' says he, 'numberless precedents for resorting to such a measure, in what you would call the best days of the church, without any previous reference to the Pope. There let it be discussed in what way you may model your church, to suit the existing circumstances of the country in which it is placed, without touching on any of the fundamental articles of your religious creed. See how you can bring

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it into contact with the government of the country, so as to support it at once, and to be protected by it, conformable to the principles and spirit of genuine Christianity, wherever it has been established.

'There let it be discussed in what way the appointment of your archbishops and bishops may be brought as near as possible to the practice of the church of England, when it was yet Catholic, and to the declaration of the legislature in the reign of king Edward III. namely, "That the *congé d'elire*, the election of the chapter, had been originally granted by the king's progenitors, upon condition that they should have first asked leave of the king to choose; and after the election, also requested his assent, previous to the person's being presented for consecration."

'In this national synod let it be arranged in what manner the whole body of your clergy may be equally connected with the government and the country; how they may be brought within the circle of its influence, so as to co-operate with it in promoting religion and morals among the people, while, under its protection, they freely exercise their spiritual functions, without clashing with the interests of the national church, and without any rivalship with its ministers in the discharge of their duty to their respective flocks.

'There let it be discussed and settled in what manner the regulations of the statutes of *provisors* and *præmunire* may be preserved from encroachments, and all solicitations, all appeals to the court of Rome, —all sentences, bulls, and instruments from thence may be prevented, unless subjected to the inspection of such persons as shall be authorised by the government, and who shall be obliged to give an official account to the government, of their objects and their contents; at the same time that no agent shall be employed in the court of Rome, without an express license from the king, appointing him specifically.

'There let it be considered in what way the spiritual discipline of your church may be maintained and enforced, without erecting tribunals that are unknown to the laws of the land; without establishing jurisdictions that derive all their authority from the court of Rome; that operate as a government within a government, and upon the principles of a law that has never, in any time, Catholic or Protestant, been recognized as law in England, that, in cases of excommunication, act in direct violation of the spirit of the constitution, and with a power of enforcing the sentences, denied to the ecclesiastical courts of the established church, infringing on the personal rights of the subject, and oppressing him in his reputation, in his property, in the means of procuring his livelihood, by arbitrary proceedings, and by an exercise of spiritual tyranny, that is a disgrace to any free land.'

Melancthon endeavours to obviate the objection which he is aware would be made to this scheme; the outline, at least, of which is worthy of consideration.

Mo-y.

Art. 17. *Letter to William Baker*, Esq. M. P. occasioned by his late Address to the Gentlemen, Clergy, and Freeholders of the County of Hertford. By a Freeholder. 8vo. 6d. Conder.

An individual of that class of freeholders, which was implicated in a certain part of Mr. Baker's address, here endeavours to rebut the insinuation which it conveys; and in return he charges the member with

with a dereliction of his former principles; with peevishness and inconsistency. Thus it ever happens, that mutual recriminations succeed the dissolution of political friendships. Mo-y.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 18. *A new and comprehensive Dictionary of Correspondences, Representatives, and Significatives contained in the Word of the Lord:* arranged under distinct Heads, with proper References. Including a full Explanation of each Article or Subject, with the Reason, Cause, and Ground of its Signification. The whole being an infallible Key to the internal Sense of the Holy Word, and an universal System of Evangelical Theology. Faithfully extracted from all the Theological Works of the Hon. Emanuel Swedenborg. With an introductory Preface. By George Nicholson, N. H. M. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Sibly.

At last we have summoned resolution to notice this strange compilation. We "wage no war with Bedlam;" and if we could have sent this work to one of the cells of St. Luke's, we should have consigned it to a reviewer more qualified for the undertaking than we feel ourselves to be, and have spared ourselves a most unpleasant office. To us all the *light*, which is here so pompously displayed, is "darkness visible," and we know not whether we ought to play the part of laughing or weeping philosophers over such effusions. Mr. N. gravely informs us, that 'Emanuel Swedenborg conversed with some who died before the flood, that he had commerce with angels, that he was elevated many times into Heaven, that he understood things as an angel, that he was present in the planets, that he conversed with the worst of spirits without danger, and was actually let down into Hell.' It is possible for a madman to make all these assertions, and many more of the same kind, respecting himself: but he must have better luck than most other madmen to find a brother lunatic who believes him, and who will transcribe and arrange his rhapsodies in a quarto volume. Our patience has been put to the severest trial, in turning over these pages; and of this our readers will be convinced by the extracts which we shall make:—extracts for which, indeed, we should offer an apology, were we not persuaded that many persons will regard them as curious specimens of the absurdity of which the human mind is capable.

'A., in the angelic language, is one of the vowels used in the third heaven to express a sound corresponding with affection. *S. S.* 90.'—

'ABDOMEN, spirits who affect too nice a scrupulousness of conscience in trivial matters, have communication with the abdomen, and occasion pain there. *A. C.* 5724.'—

'AGUE, or COLD FEVER, is a disorder occasioned by evil spirits of the most malignant class, whenever it is permitted them to infuse their sphere into the impure substances of the human body. *A. C.* 5716.'—

'ANGELS (the celestial) do not write by letters, but by curved lines (*Curvaturas*) and inflexions which contain arcana, which transcend the understanding of the angels in the inferior heavens. *S. S.* 90.

'ANGELS of the celestial kingdom are clothed in purple garments, and angels of the spiritual kingdom in white linen garments. *D. L. W.* 380.'—

'APES.

'APES. There were seen in the world of spirits apes mounted on horses, with their bodies *reversed*, or their faces towards the horses' tails, assembled from the place called Armageddon, (Rev. xvi. 16.) to fight against those who are of the Lord's new church. *A. R.* 839.'—

'ASS, and the FOAL of an Ass, (Luke, xix. 28. 41.) sig. the natural man as to good and truth. *A. C.* 2781.'—

'BASES (the ten) round Solomon's temple, (1 Kings, vii. 30.) sig. the receptacles of truth by which man is purified and regenerated. *A. C.* 8215.'—

'BASKET, (Gen. xl. 16. and Exod. xxix. 3.) sig. the sensual principle, or the ultimate of the life of man, which contains all his interior principles in order. *A. C.* 9996.'—

'EUPHRATES (the river) sig. interior reasonings, whereby those who are in the doctrine of justification by faith alone confirm themselves. *A. R.* 444.'—

'FIG-LEAVES with which Adam and Eve covered themselves, sig. moral truths, under which they concealed the things appertaining to their love and pride. *D. P.* 313.'—

'HEEL. Beneath the *heel* of the foot, at a great depth, are situated the *hells* of the most deceitful, and of the modern Antediluvians. *A. C.* 2754.

'HEEL. Under the *hell* (in hell) are the modern diluvian spirits, who insinuate themselves under the mask of various good affections. *A. C.* 2754.

'HEEL of the LEFT FOOT (under the) there is a hell where the Antediluvians who perished are situated in respect to the maximus *Homo*. *A. C.* 1266.'—

'KNEES (Gen. xxx. 5.) sig. conjugal love. *A. C.* 3915.

'KNEES (the) (Isa. lxvi. 12.) sig. celestial love. *Ap. Ex.* 365. *p.* 498.

'KNEES (Ezek. vii. 17.) sig. the love of good. *Ap. Ex.* 677. *p.* 524.

'KNEES (Ezek. xlvii. 3–9.) sig. the spiritual natural [principle]. *Ap. Ex.* 629 *p.* 402.'—

'OX (young). The son of a cow, sig. the celestial natural principle, also natural exterior good. *A. C.* 2184. 4244.'—

'RAIN and SNOW (Isa. lv. 10). *Rain* sig. spiritual truth, which is appropriated to man; and *snow* natural truth, which is as *snow*, while only in the memory, but becomes spiritual by love, as *snow* melts into *rain-water* by the heat of the sun. *Ap. Ex.* 644.'—

'SAND upon the SEA-SHORE (Gen. xxii.) sig. a multitude of corresponding scientifics, for *sea* denotes scientifics in general on their gathering together, and *sand* denotes scientifics in particular; scientifics are compared to *sand*, because the little stones of which *sand* consists, in the internal sense, are scientifics. *A. C.* 2850.'—

'TURTLES represent such of the clergy as separate faith entirely from charity and its good works, saying in their hearts, that they have clearly no connexion with each other, but that the Holy Ghost, by virtue of faith in God the Father, for the sake of his Son's merits, entereth into man, and purifieth his interiors, as far as the will

which is proper to himself, of which they make, as it were, an oval plane, and that when the operation of the Holy Ghost approacheth that plane, it turneth itself about it on the left side, but never entereth into contact with it.'—

'Y, in the angelic language, appertains to the celestial class of affections. *S. S.* 90.'—

'YOUNG LION (Isa. xxxi. 4.) sig. the omnipotence of divine truth derived from the omnipotence of divine good. *A. C.* 6367.'—

'ZIIM, OCHIM, DAUGHTERS of the OWL, SATYRS, IIM, and DRAGONS (Isa. xiii. 21, 22.) sig. the interior things of worship, appertaining to self-love or proprium. *A. C.* 1326.'

Here we take our leave, for ever we hope, of Swedenborg and his disciples; and after our readers have perused the above string of incomprehensible explanations, they will not wish us, unless for the punishment of our sins, to be obliged to review another dictionary of a like description. Mr. N. says that '*Dogs* signify those who babble and prate much about the things of the church, and understand but little.' According to this definition, *we* should say, what *sad dogs* are Swedenborg and his disciples! Mo-y.

Art. 19. *An Attempt to remove Prejudices concerning the Jewish Nation.* By way of Dialogue. By Thos. Witherby. Part. I. 8vo. pp. 510. 10s. 6d. Boards. Hatchard, &c.

We may regard this volume as a well-meant though injudicious defence of the Jewish nation, in opposition to the sentiments which have been so long entertained by Christians respecting their crimes and demerits. No person of common humanity will question the truth of the assertion, that the Jews have been, in different ages of the Christian æra, subjected to cruelties and indignities of the most atrocious nature: but whether these sufferings may be stated, as they commonly are by learned divines, to be the visitations of Heaven for the Jewish rejection of the Messiah; or whether, as Mr. Witherby supposes, their afflictions have no relation to that matter, but are the result of their apostacy in various ways from the true spirit and temper of their religion; are questions which we shall not here discuss. He maintains that Christians have no right to insult this people in their distress and humiliation: but that they ought rather to consider them as elder brethren, who are, for some wise and important ends, degraded from their rank among the nations of the earth, and are intitled to every office of kind and tender relief. Though the sentiments towards the Jews, which the enthusiastic author of the present volume endeavours to inculcate, are in many respects extravagant, they are at least the result of an amiable mind. He boldly ventures to infer from prophecy, and from observation on passing events, that there is good reason for believing that the sufferings of the Jews are now nearly at an end; and he adds that, immediately after the conclusion of their tribulations, they will be recalled, in a glorious manner, to their own country; that they will then be honoured and respected by all nations; that Christian churches will then assume a Jewish appearance; and that Jesus of Nazareth, whom their fathers rejected, will, by his immediate presence among them, prove himself to them, and to the whole world, to be the true Messiah, and "the glory of his

people Israel." The coming of the Messiah in the clouds of Heaven, as he foretold, will then take place, and be discerned by the bodily eye; and the Jews will mourn over their past offences, when "they look on him whom they pierced." In the mean time, the Gentiles will greatly rejoice, and assist in conveying the Jews to Mount Zion, and will go up together with them to worship the Lord in his holy temple of Jerusalem.—Such are the splendid expectations of Mr. Witherby; we dare not so far commit ourselves as to add that they are as judicious as splendid. Man.

Art. 20. *A Narrative of the Proceedings in America, of the Society called Quakers, in the Case of Hannah Barnard.* With a brief Review of the previous Transactions in Great Britain and Ireland: intended as a Sequel to an Appeal to the Society of Friends. 8vo. pp. 145. 2s. 6d. sewed. Johnson. 1804.

This worthy lady was, it appears, a quaker preacher of considerable eminence: but she has had the misfortune to become infected with what is deemed, within the pale of the Friends, to be heresy. We have perused the present narrative with much concern; for we cannot discover, in the treatment which she has received, any of the gentleness of the brotherhood. She has been rigorously prosecuted, degraded, and disowned; or, in other words, unfrocked and excommunicated. To be held up to friends and connections as spiritually contaminated, to be deprived of all consideration among them, to experience the loss of their attentions, no longer to be the object of their caresses, but to be shunned and avoided by them; all this is too much for the nerves of an amiable and weak woman. Hard-hearted disciplinarians! do ye flatter the fair by admitting them into your holy orders, only that they may experience mortifications, to which they cannot be subjected in communities in which they are less favoured! Jo.

Art. 21. *A Declaration of certain Points of Religious Doctrine,* as it was delivered extempore by William Dennison, a plain Farmer of Saffron Walden; with a Preface by the Editor, and Observations addressed to the Reader, by C. Payn. 12mo. 6d. Rivingtons.

The author of this declaration, or sermon, is stated to be the occupier of a small farm, and to possess a little property which he has acquired by industry and frugality. He is said also to be about fifty years of age, and to have received education during only six months. By reading the scriptures, however, and by a diligent attendance on the service of the church, he has cultivated his mind with religious principles. He appears to enjoy a good memory; and his reading and hearing have happily contributed not to unsettle his mind, but to confirm his faith in all the doctrines of the Established Church. Moy.

Art. 22. *The Spiritual Telescope:* being a solemn Inquiry respecting the World of Spirits, and the intermediate State of Man from his Death to his Resurrection. By J. Bentley. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Jones.

Great things are attempted in this little essay; the author of

which endeavours ' to prove from divine authority, that the immortal spirit, during the intermediate state, between its departure from the body and the resurrection, does not sleep.—That it experiences no purgatory: that it does not descend into the earth beneath: but wholly quits these terrestrial regions. And that the final stroke, which reduces the vegetative body to the dust, and extinguishes the sensitive life, sets the immortal spirit at liberty to soar to the skies, under a convoy of angels, to unite in company with the disembodied spirits of the patriarchs, the prophets, and the apostles, and the great assembly of the church of the first-born; and, what is still more glorious, to enjoy the presence of the gracious Redeemer, one of whose last expressions was, " This day shalt thou be with me in paradise!"

Such is the magnificent promise: but Mr. Bentley's Spiritual Telescope has not enabled us to see the objects which he pretends to have descried in the world of spirits.

His observations on the distinction between the Hebrew words translated *soul* and *spirit*, on the parable of Dives and Lazarus, on the story of the Witch of Endor, (whom he absurdly calls ' the Pythoness,') and *on the appearance of Julius Cæsar to Brutus*, (a strange circumstance to blend with sacred evidence!) are lame attempts to elucidate questions over which Scripture has designedly thrown a veil. After having toiled through many pages, we are told that ' Paradise *may* be in the beautiful planet Venus, or in Mercury, and that the residence of happy disembodied spirits *may* be in the Sun.' O most lame and impotent conclusion! Such a *may be* could be obtained without a telescope. Mo-y.

HISTORY, BIOGRAPHY, &c.

Art. 23. *Circumstances respecting the late Charles Montford, Esq.* By George Harley, Esq. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

The writer of this affecting narrative has exemplified a great share of sensibility in the description which he gives of his friend; whose acute anguish on the loss of Louisa, the object of his affections, induced him, in the frenzy of despair, to put a period to his own existence. The excellence of the character, which the author has pourtrayed in the latter part of his detail, will be more fully apparent to the reader from a perusal of the incidents of Mr. Montford's life, and from the habitual sentiments which are stated to have influenced his general conduct. It will be readily perceived, at the same time, that the writer himself is one who has profited from his commerce with the world, and has stored his mind with many useful and important maxims of conduct derived from his acquaintance with men and manners. Man.s

Art. 24. *Political and Military Memoirs of Europe*, from the Renewal of the War on the Continent in 1798, to the Peace of Amiens in 1802: with an Introductory View of the Treaty of Campo Formio, and Proceedings of the Congress at Rastadt. In Three Volumes. By T. E. Ritchie. Vols. II. and III. 8vo. 1l. 4s. Boards. Longman and Co.

We see no reason for changing the favorable account of this work, which

which the perusal of the first volume induced us to give *. It is a convenient summary of the events of the period which it comprizes, and must prove of use to those who take an active share in our public affairs, as well as to those who study the events of their own times.

Were this work again to be compiled, we fancy that Bonaparte would be less the idol of the writer: but whether he would judge more favorably of Mr. Pitt and of his colleagues, we will not conjecture. In these pages, certainly very little merit is allowed to that right honorable gentleman, and we have seldom met with a writer who has spoken of him in terms so disparaging.

It is impossible to magnify the danger to which Europe is exposed from the power of France: but we congratulate ourselves on the removal of a main pillar of that power, if the author's conceptions of it be just,—we mean the republican structure of the government. Bonaparte has obliged the world by completely withdrawing that support.

Art. 25. *Military Memoirs, relating to Campaigns, Battles, and Stratagems of War, ancient and modern;* extracted from the best Authorities: with occasional Remarks. By the Author of "Memoirs of the War in Asia," &c. (Wm. Thomson.) 8vo. pp. 588. 10s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1804.

Mr. Thomson is of opinion that a deep insight into human nature, as well as other kinds of information, should be united to military experience in order to form able Generals. Under this conviction, he has here collected the accounts which he deemed the best, of the principal battles in antient and modern times; and he states the dispositions of the armies engaged, describes their mode of fighting, and points out the circumstances which determined victory to range on the one side, rather than on the other. The work undoubtedly would have possessed higher value, had it proceeded from a professional pen: but we are beholden to Mr. Thomson for a well directed attempt; and if it does not produce all the good effects which might be expected from a similar design executed by other hands, it cannot fail to be productive of some benefit in times like the present. If, indeed, it should stimulate a more qualified person to tread over the same grounds, it would produce a consequence which we should regard as important, as well in a literary as a patriotic point of view.

The author gives the preference to Polybius among the antients in regard to military details, but intimates that we are not to place much confidence in his translators Folard and Hampden; the one being ignorant of Greek, and the other a complete stranger to the art of war. Sir Walter Raleigh's very valuable history, he justly observes, excels in nothing more than in the accounts which it contains of antient battles; and no person can peruse the extracts which he has selected from that historian's relation of the battle of Cannæ, without being struck with his superiority in this respect. Mr. T. also very properly apprizes his readers of the peculiar merit of this sort, which characterizes Mr. Cunningham's descriptions of the battles and sieges of our Duke of Marlborough.

* Vide Rev. N. S. vol. xxxii. p. 330.

POETRY.

Art. 26. *Hispaniola*, a Poem; with appropriate Notes. To which are added Lines on the Cruxifixion; and other poetical Pieces. By Samuel Whitchurch. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons, &c.

The triumph of the Negro-race over their tyrants and oppressors, in this celebrated island of the western world, is a subject animating to Poets; while the history and scenery of Hispaniola furnish many ideas to give both beauty and pathos to their delineations. Mr. Whitchurch, having visited the West Indies, is qualified to descant on the discriminating features of natural scenery; and by having informed himself of the different revolutions and events which have marked the chronicle of this ill-fated country, he has sufficiently imbued his mind with the horrid cruelties which have successively been there perpetrated. If a poet could be *made*, these materials would be almost sufficient to give an inspiring ardor to the soul; and then Mr. W. would have secured a more flattering tribute, than under the present circumstances we are authorized to pronounce: but, though he be not a bard of soul-inflaming energy, his humanity and Christian principles sometimes elevate his numbers. The contrast which he draws between the mildness and generosity of the original inhabitants of Hayti, and the ferocity and perfidy of the Spaniards; and the view which he takes of more recent barbarities, and of the attempts of the French to subjugate this Negro colony, with their base conduct towards the Negro chief, who had surrendered himself into their hands; fire him with an indignation bordering on poetry. His vision and prophecy of the amiable *Anacoana*, who fell a victim to her hospitality, and his invocation of the ghost of *Toussaint Louverture*, who solemnly invokes Bonaparte, are portions of the poem which will do him the most credit. We shall transcribe the stanzas that relate to the female cacique, the inoffensive and kind-hearted *Anacoana*, whom the merciless *Ovando* destroyed;

'Impartial muse of history!
Thy records stained with blood I see;
For led by memory to thy foulest page,
I turn far back when giant crimes
Damned the proud victories of the times,
And blasted all the laurels of the age.

'Wafted across the billowy flood,
I hear *vehément* cries for blood,
And murder's voice on Hayti's ravaged coast,
Outroar the torrent waves that sweep
Down the huge mountain's towering steep;
Whilst pass before me many an injured ghost!

'The wing of fancy bears me nigh
Some world beneath a happier sky,
Whither the martyred of mankind have fled;
Where pleasure walks o'er verdant plains,
Where peace perpetual empress reigns,
And where reside the spirits of the dead.

'Hark!

'Hark! melody's soft sounds I hear
Steal on my rapture-ravished ear;
Some matchless beauty beams upon my eye,
Than evening's lustrous star more bright,
Or the refulgent queen of night
When walking forth in cloudless majesty.

'Tis murdered *Anacoana*'s voice,
She bids thee, sun-bright isle, rejoice,
She bids the spirits of the murdered rest:
Ocean's proud waves forget to roar,
And silent break upon thy shore,
While her kind accents soothe the listener's breast.

'Behold her angel-spirit rise—
Mark her bright mercy-beaming eyes
Weep o'er Xaragua's solitary fate;
Though thus she mourns forsaken vales
That echoed murder's dreadful tales,
She sees far off, and hails thy happier state.

"Alas! what hearts by hardships broke,
"Who bowed, who died beneath the yoke,
"None of my faithful friends survive to tell;
"Them bondage held 'till life's last breath,
"Their toils ne'er ceased 'till sunk in death,
"Their wounded spirits bade the world farewel.

"But famine smote the blood-hound crew,
"That from their bleeding vitals drew
"The carnage banquet and the feast of blood;
"They rolled their eager eyes in vain
"Around each desolated plain
"Where murder prowled, and poured life's purple flood.

"And thou, stern foe! more base than brave,
"Bold traveller o'er yon wide sea wave,
"Though thou hast conquered, and thy millions slain,
"Though Mexico's rich spoils be thine,
"And Peru's far-famed golden mine,
"Thou shalt be cursed with thy unrighteous gain.

"Anon some rival will arise,
"And share with thee this paradise—
"When shineth here the star of liberty
"Thou shalt in darkness still remain,
"And hug thy own proud tyrant's chain,
"Blind foe to truth, and slave of bigotry!

"Then mourn not much-loved summer isle,
"Again on thee shall freedom smile,
"Though on thee prey the vultures of the north:
"Brave sable nations shall arise,
"And route thy future enemies,
"Though Europe send her hostile legions forth.

" Yet ere the victor's flag be borne
" Millions will from their friends be torn,
" Kidnapped and bound on Afric's distant shore;
" From the green banks that Niger laves,
" Or realms o'erlooking ocean's caves,
" Dragg'd forth to bondage—to return no more!

" But they shall rise! the hour will come
" Big with the proud oppressor's doom;
" Though times and seasons slowly pass away,
" That sun which saw his ruffian hand
" Spread desolation o'er the land,
" Will smile on retribution's holy day!"

' Thus said—the star-bright beauty flies
To *Coyaba*'s green paradise,
Where kindred souls with kindred ardour burn,
And where from many an Eden grove
Thro' which departed spirits rove
Ten thousand thousand hail her glad return.'

The notes subjoined occupy a space equal to that of the poem; but they considerably enhance the pleasure of its perusal.

We shall take no notice of the additional poems in this volume, since they contain no more favourable specimens of the author's poetical talent than that which stands at their head.—The imitation of Cowper's "*My Mary!*" with each stanza ending 'My Father!' was a bold attempt, but not a very happy one. Moy.

Art. 27. *The Anti Corsican.* A Poem, in three Cantos: inscribed to the Volunteers of Great Britain. 4to. pp. 52. 5s. sewed. Stockdale. 1805.

Youth, at the present day, seems to contest the prize of fame with mature age. We have a young Roscius who astonishes all ranks at the Theatre; and we have here a school-boy poet, who equals in genius, in force, and in harmony of numbers, most of our modern bards. By the title, and by the modest advertisement which announces the poem before us to be the production of a young gentleman of *Midhurst School*, written during the last summer vacation, we were not encouraged to anticipate any high gratification. We only expected to find a warm effusion of juvenile zeal in the cause of our country, and were prepared to tolerate some defects in a composition prompted by the noblest patriotism. How agreeably were we surprized to view prominent and striking beauties instead of blemishes; to meet with a manly and nervous poet in a youth of Midhurst school! Mr. Wool, the master, may well be proud of such a pupil;—a pupil to whom the muses have been very partial, and who appears to have improved their favours by suitable application, particularly in having acquired a good taste from a diligent study of Pope and our best poets. We should not suppose that these are the author's "lispings in numbers," and that he would wish us to apply to him, on the present occasion, Ovid's apology for the bantlings of his early muse, l/

" *Sponte*

"*Sponte suâ carmen numeros veniebat ad aptos,*
Et, quod tentabam dicere, versus erat."

The present production is not composed of numbers which accidentally slide into verse and hitch into rhime. It is not a rickety brat, but full of nerve and sinew. The fire of the poet is not inferior to the indignation of the patriot. The Corsican is depicted in all his traits of ambition and blood; the ardor of our countrymen is roused to oppose him; the courage of our defenders is celebrated; the unfading laurel is spred over the tomb of those heroes who have gloriously perished in resisting the arms of Bonaparte; and the tear of humanity is shed over those unhappy countries which have fallen under the tyranny of this military despot. We cannot do justice to this poem by accompanying the writer through his similies and personifications, in which he continually reminds us of Pope's version of Homer; we cannot pursue him in his exposure of the history of his hero, particularly in Egypt and Syria, in the course of which he compliments Sir Sidney Smith, and offers a tribute to the memory of Sir Ralph Abercromby; nor can we do justice to that part in which the poet follows the French General in his return to Europe, and reprobates his subversion of the liberties of surrounding countries, with his hostile projects against Britain's shore, which give rise to a noble address to the volunteers. We must content ourselves with a solitary specimen, to speak for the whole; and we shall copy the lamentation of a Swiss on quitting his subjugated country.

'Let Fancy's eye behold, from some tall brow,
A hoary Herdsman view the Vale below—
Hark, how he mournful cries—"Blest Land, adieu!
For the last time this scene ador'd I view—
Behold yon tufted trees—there stood my cot—
Fierce Desolation now has mark'd the spot;
There fled my earliest days, those days of joy,
Those hours of bliss untainted by alloy!
Behold the tree, it stands e'en now the same,
On which, in rustic pride, I carv'd my name!
Beneath yon aged oak, which still uprears
Its giant head, and mocks the lapse of years,
Oft' did I lead the dance, what time on high
The moon majestic rode along the sky:
There did I tell the tender tale of love,
And there, with her I worship'd, us'd to rove;
When, blest with all my soul held dear below,
I knew no crime, nor ever tasted woe.
But earthly bliss is transient—sorrow came,
And quench'd, for ever quench'd joy's short-liv'd flame.
Our only child, who, with his Cherub-*smiles*,
Was wont to cheer us in our daily *toils*,
Th' Invaders murder'd—impotent to save,
I bore him bleeding to the silent grave—
And as misfortunes, such the will of Heav'n,
Seldom, to Human-kind, are singly giv'n,

My

My Wife, sweet Partner of my ev'ry care!
Bent 'neath th' o'erwhelming load of mute Despair;
And as an earth-worm gnaws the beauteous rose,
Cank'ring each tender blossom as it blows,
Till unperceiv'd it hastens to decay,
Hangs its afflicted head and dies away;
So, when deep sorrow prey'd upon her bloom,
She inward pin'd, and sank into the tomb.
I saw the deadly tortures of her soul,
I saw the bitter tear unbidden roll,
I heard the deep-drawn sigh, but half supprest,
I mark'd the dreadful heavings of her breast—
Dire was the struggle—many a live-long night
Her pangs, which like her virtues shun'd the light,
Burst forth without controul—yet morn arose
And found her calm and patient in her woes.
The last dread struggle came—the hour drew nigh
When clos'd for ever was her tearful eye;
Yet, ere her spirit took its final flight
To gain, on Seraph-wings, the Realms of light,
She press'd my hand and cried—"Weep not for me!
My tow'ring Spirit shortly will be free,
And 'mid refulgent Hosts of Angels rove
To find our Darling in the World Above.
Yet one sharp pang assails my freezing heart—
From thee, my Best-Belov'd, from thee to part!—
But thou wilt follow—I will point the way,
And guide thy steps to everlasting day.
Forget me not, when the cold hand of Death
Has stopp'd, as soon it must, my short'ning breath;
For I have lov'd thee, and I love thee now
As when I made my willing nuptial vow;
Farewell, my Love!"—The fault'ring accents hung
On her parch'd lips, and died upon her tongue.

'Now a sad Exile, aged and forlorn,
From every tie of fond affection torn,
I leave my native mountains, far to roam,
And seek on foreign Land my last long home.
But if, Helvetia, time shou'd ever part
Thy much-lov'd image from my aching heart,
If I prefer not these rude rocks that rise
In hoary grandeur 'bove th' inclement skies,
E'en to those climes where spring eternal reigns,
And with perpetual verdure decks the plains,
May Heav'n forget me in my feeble age,
Nor guide my footsteps thro' life's last drear stage!
Lov'd rocks, farewell! these hapless eyes no more
Shall your deep clefts and wond'rous grots explore—
Again farewell!"—Strong sobs his bosom heave,
Big tears fall fast upon his tatter'd sleeve;
And, as his feet adown the mountain wind,
"He casts one longing, ling'ring look behind."

This

This young poet knows how to touch the heart by strokes of pathos; and his subsequent apostrophe to the warriors of Britain is not less calculated to enkindle every spark of patriotic enthusiasm. As our poetic readers will, no doubt, endeavour to see the pamphlet itself, they will excuse the narrow space which we have reserved for it. Mo-y.

Art. 28. *The Angler;* a didactic Poem. By Charles Clifford. 12mo. 2s. Wallis. 1804.

If by angling we could obtain money to satisfy the demands of the tax-gatherer, which was done formerly on a memorable occasion, it would be now a very *useful* and convenient pursuit: but since, without a miracle, we cannot expect it to answer in this way, it can only be classed among the number of time-killing amusements; and, as it is not the most merciful, it will not, in the eye of the Christian Philosopher, be deemed the most eligible avocation. It may be said, indeed, that Man is a hunting animal, designed by nature to catch his food before he eats it; that in early times there was *Nimrod, a mighty hunter before the Lord;* and that some of the very Apostles were *fishermen*. All this may be granted; yet we cannot wholly approve of the *sport;* and we are even inclined to call in the aid of Swift's well-known satirical description of it, as exhibiting only "a stick and a string, with a worm at one end and a fool at the other." The pursuit, however, may teach patience, and, as the younger Pliny says of hunting, may be eminently propitious to reflection. To a poetical angler, it will also afford sufficient leisure for celebrating its praise in the language of the Muses.

Mr. Clifford is one of these versifying advocates of angling; and we shall give a sample of his powers and his arguments, by quoting his defence of the practice from the charge of cruelty:

'And ye who boast the tender feeling heart,
Who own soft pity's ~~soft~~ fascinating sway!
Deem not our pastime cruel, murderous;
Oh, rank us not with base assassins, who
The helpless innocent oppress, the weak
Destroy! Know, death's th' unerring doom of all!
Know that by kindred fangs devour'd each day,
Thousands of finny wanderers fall. The trout
Devours the brother trout: the rav'nous pike
Preys on each inmate of the teeming brook:
The shark alike the whole, e'en man, destroys.
Say then, shall man to serve his wants refrain,
When all around is havock? Shall he fail
To help himself when all *unbid* partake?
Nor with th' exulting infidel exclaim,
This ruin proves an erring Providence!
Know that from partial evil general good
Proceeds. While shorten'd thus each single thread,
Millions enjoy the blessed boon of life:
Nor could these millions live, were there not giv'n,
By nature's wise behest, a mutual prey.
So weak and self-elated man exclaims,

Why

Why is our span of life so short? and why
Are not our days on earth unlimited?
Vain fool! the universe is not for thee!
'Twas made for thousands—made for gen'ral good.'

It would be very unfortunate if, on such a subject, the composition could not be styled *flowing*: but this is not altogether the predicament of Mr. Clifford's poem. We have here only Book I. but more is promised if he meets with encouragement.—Mr. C. does not profess to adopt any part of the plan of Oppian, whose attention was directed to fishing on the main seas, but confines himself literally to fresh-water-streams. He does not, however, conclude this part of his poem, without a digressory notice of the pleasures of the Greenland fishery. Mo.

MILITARY.

Art. 29. *A Treatise on the Cavalry and Saddle Horse:* with Remarks on Pacing and Leaping, Observations on Breeding, &c. By G. Orr, Esq. late of the Fencible Cavalry. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Ginger.

It appears to have been the author's principal aim, in this manual, to supply directions for the choice and management of horses that are destined for military service: but they are also extended to the more common purposes for which this noble animal is used. The instructions relate to all the various heads under which the subject may be viewed, and seem to be formed according to the best and most received opinions and practice. Much useful advice, therefore, is here comprized in a short compass. G.2.

Art. 30. *The various Movements, Dispositions, and Combinations, that may be made with Pikemen,* in Aid of the Regulars and Militia. By Geo. Orr, Esq., formerly of the Fencible Cavalry, and now of the Royal Cumberland Militia. 12mo. 6d. Gray and Son, No. 62, Piccadilly.

The pike is undoubtedly a formidable weapon, and possesses many recommendations. We rather wonder, therefore, that the numerous suggestions for the use of it have been so generally disregarded; for we know not that it is adopted, in any instance, except among the Sea [illegible]ibles. Mr. Orr is a strong advocate for this instrument of offence, and displays its advantages in different points of view. D.o

Art. 31. *Nine Letters on Military Subjects.* By the Rev. Wm. Martin Trinder, LL.B. at Oxford, and M.D. at Leyden. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dwyer.

These letters were first published in a daily newspaper, with an assumed signature, which did not manifest the singularity of a divine writing on military matters, which now appears in the title-page. Mr. Trinder, however, no doubt thinks that his office of *Instructor* may be extended to almost all subjects; and therefore he here undertakes 'to point out the four chief requisites in the character of a soldier, and the right means of applying them; with some hints concerning a military man's domestic duty.' These requisites are *Courage, Fortitude, Obedience,* and *Military Science;* and on each Mr. T. supplies a number of desultory but useful precepts, illustrated occasionally by references to great events and celebrated characters. A leisure hour will

by no means be misemployed in reading this pamphlet, by those to whom it is particularly addressed.

G.2.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 32. *Considerations on the best Mode of improving the present imperfect State of the Navigation of the River Thames, from Richmond to Staines.* Shewing the Advantages to the Public, the Navigators, and the Owners and Occupiers of Houses, Mills, and Lands in the Vicinity, by improving the Navigation of the River, in Preference to the Making any Canal. Illustrated by Maps, and Plans, &c. By Zach. Allnutt, Henley, Superintendant of the 2d and 3d Districts. 12mo. Pamph. Harris, &c.

It was the opinion of the celebrated Brindley, "that rivers were not intended by the Almighty for navigation." If we could wish to modify the censure of this celebrated engineer, we are not insensible to the difficulties which rivers present to the Navigator, and the obstacles which result from rapids and shallows. The river Thames, though enriched by many tributary streams, frequently in dry seasons experiences a want of water, and loaded barges are unable to pass over the flats between Richmond and Staines. Mr. Allnutt, knowing the inefficacy of the means hitherto tried, proposes to remove this defect in the Thames-navigation, by making *opening weirs* to pen the river only when the water is low, and by *side-cuts* and *pound-locks* to avoid the shallows; and he conceives that *three* of these weirs, side-cuts, and pound-locks, the expence of making which cannot exceed 20,000l. would produce an effectual amendment, and supersede the necessity of having recourse to a new canal. Mr. Allnutt appears to have paid considerable attention to this subject; and his plan, if executed, would probably remove some, if not all, of the evils which the navigators of barges now experience.

The Maps and Plans which illustrate this little pamphlet are printed with moveable types, according to a mode invented by Mr. A., and which, we are told, he employs in giving plans of estates, to be affixed to Particulars and Conditions of Sale. Specimens of these Plans, representing various kinds of property, accompany this work; and the contrivance has the merit of neatness, cheapness, and expedition.

Mo-y.

Art. 33. *Tables calculated for the Arbitration of Exchanges, both simple and compound;* with an Account of the Currencies and Monies of the principal commercial Cities of Europe. Taken from the latest and best Authorities, by J. R. Teschemacher. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Author, 44, Great Tower-Street.

The Introduction to these Tables seems to us very faulty, since it is addressed neither to the learned nor to the unlearned; if intended for a beginner, it is insufficient,—if for a proficient, it is unnecessary: yet the author might, without great difficulty, have rendered his Introduction, as an elementary treatise on the subject of his book, very useful, by intermixing proper explanations with his numerous examples. Of the merit of the tables, we cannot speak decisively; since, to form proper judgment on these matters, practice and experience are necessary;

necessary; and the opinion of speculative men, sitting quietly in their libraries, will probably not be deemed of much weight. R.W.

Art. 34. *Book-keeping improved,* or a certain Method laid down and exemplified for the Detection and Prevention of Errors: entirely superseding the tedious Process of calling the Books over. By Philip Pullin, Book-keeper to Messrs. Bogle, French, Burrowes, and Canning. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Sold at No. 2, Devonshire-Street, Bishopsgate.

The intention of this work is set forth in the title-page. A convenient method is shewn, first, of keeping the books free from error with tolerable certainty; and then, if errors should creep in, of detecting them expeditiously and commodiously. The ledger is not altered: but the journal is. At the end, the author advertises proposals for a publication to be intitled, "An Universal Negociator and Arbiter of Exchange." Do.

Art. 35. *An Oration Commemorative of the late Major-General Alexander Hamilton;* pronounced before the New York State Society of the Cincinnati, 31st July 1804. By J. M. Mason, D.D. &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ogle, &c.

An energetic and affectionate tribute to the memory of a distinguished, valuable, and unfortunate member of society; which will interest every one who, with us, regrets the occasion that deprived America of his talents and services. Man.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 36. *Preached at the Anniversary of the Royal Humane Society,* in St. George's Church, Hanover Square, April 15, 1804. By the Right Reverend Thomas Burgess, D.D. Bishop of St. David's. To which is added, an Appendix of Miscellaneous Observations on Resuscitation. By the Society. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons.

The power and providence of the Creator are pointed out in this discourse, from Gen. xlv. 5. by many ingenious arguments and physical illustrations. From these interesting reflections, the Right Rev. author conducts us to other remarks on the goodness of God in the work of Revelation, and in the natural progress by which mankind are led from the infancy of knowlege to the establishment of arts and sciences, and to the various improvements and advantages of civilized life.—These considerations introduce the immediate subject, which the preacher has in view,—the Institution of the Humane Society.—'It is (says he) a circumstance highly interesting to humanity to have seen a short period of years distinguished by *three* events so beneficial to our fellow-creatures, and so honourable to our country, as the establishment of one Society for the preservation of life from the calamity of sudden death,—of another for the extirpation of a malignant disease,—and the discovery of the life-boat.'

After this pleasing view of the improvements of social life, the following appeal is made to the benevolent feelings of the audience:

'If it is interesting only to *hear* of the success of such exertions of Charity, how much more so, to have contributed to it, in any instance, by personal aid! This however can fall to the lot of very few. But all, who

who have the will, may enjoy the consciousness of taking *their share* in this labour of love; and of affording very beneficial service by contributing their pecuniary aid to the augmentation of the society's means of doing good, and to the perfection of its plans.

'A Christian can never be in want of motives to induce him to employ a considerable portion of the good things, with which God has blessed him, in the service of his fellow-creatures, and of assisting and promoting the valuable purposes of humane and charitable institutions.'

The Appendix deserves attention, for the salutary cautions and information which it conveys. Man.ᵍ

Art. 37. *Preached in the Church of Louth, at the Anniversary Grand Provincial Meeting of Free and Accepted Masons,* Aug. 13, 1804. By the Rev. Thomas Orme, D.D. F.S.A. R.W.M. 510. and P.C.C. for the County of Lincoln. 8vo. 6d. Rivingtons.

The general duty of benevolence, and the peculiar obligations which arise from the establishment of civil Society, are properly pointed out in this short address, and are shewn to be founded on a just sense of the Divine authority. These principles, the preacher affirms, form the basis of the Free Mason's morality; and he subjoins a vindication of that order from certain charges which have been brought against it.—'*Our proudest boast*' is not a becoming expression for an humble Christian, if we may believe St. James, who says,—"But now ye rejoice in your boastings; all such rejoicing is evil."—The text is taken from 1 Peter ii. 17. Dº

Art. 38. *A compendious View of the Christian Doctrines:* being the Substance of a Sermon preached before a Society of Protestant Dissenters at Newbury in Berkshire. By David James. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

In this discourse from Ephesians ii. 18. the preacher takes occasion to remark on the certainty of the being and providence of God; on the character of Jesus, as the mediator and atonement for the sins of mankind; and on the influence of the Holy Spirit, as a secret aid and support to the faithful Christian. These three points open a vast field for theological inquiry: but we meet with nothing peculiarly striking or new on the subject in these pages. The general observations are just and pertinent; and we shall not detain our readers by any examination of the writer's proofs and arguments in favour of the *Atonement.* Dº

Art. 39. *Religious Experience essential to a Christian Minister.* Preached at Broadmead, Bristol, 1st August 1804, before the Bristol Education Society. By James Dore. 8vo. 1s. Button.

Within the compass of a few pages, this judicious author has comprized much valuable instruction for those who are designed for the sacred ministry; and although the sermon is more particularly addressed to pupils in the list of dissenters from the Church, it may be read with great improvment and advantage by young men who are educated under the Establisment. The text is taken from Proverbs xvi. 26. Dº

Art.

Art. 40. *The Influence of Christianity on the military and moral Character of a Soldier*, a Sermon preached before a Detachment of the Second West-York Militia, at Whitburn in the County of Durham, Nov. 25, 1804. By the Rev. J. Symons, B. D. Rector. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons.

John the Baptist's advice to soldiers (Luke iii. 24.) can no more be regarded as a part of the precepts of the Gospel, than his baptism can be pronounced Christian baptism; and so far this text will not justify some of the preacher's assertions. As the state of the world, however, seems to make the study of war necessary, it may not be improper, in those to whom the office of public exhortation is assigned, to take certain occasions of instructing soldiers in their moral and religious duties. Mr. Symons considers the advantages and disadvantages of the military profession. Among the former, he enumerates the sytematic regularity and obedience enforced by military discipline, as propitious to the formation of orderly and virtuous habits in soldiers by profession, and as shewing them what might be accomplished by similar discipline applied to the moral conduct. When, however, he adverts to the disadvantages of the soldier's life, and depicts the temptations to vice which it presents, the good certainly appears to be so completely balanced by the evil, that we cannot expect the spirit and temper of Christianity to be promoted by the war system. Some benefit will certainly arise from the superaddition of religious principle to military discipline, and an attempt to accomplish this object is in character with a clergyman addressing a congregation of soldiers. The preacher piously endeavours to animate his military audience to prepare for 'the last review,' by "putting on the whole armour of God."

Mo.y.

CORRESPONDENCE.

WE *marvel* at 'an Occasional Correspondent's' complete misapprehension; and WE cry out '*Fie!*' at his want of *politeness*. Could he expect us seriously to discuss the merits of an objection at which we glanced as being merely ludicrous? We were never less 'splenetic' than when we wrote the short article to which his uncourteous epistle refers.

D°

The subject mentioned in W. Y.'s sensible letter did not escape our notice, as may be seen by some of our general remarks: but it is impossible for us, in reviewing books, to comment on every objectionable passage which occurs.

D°

R.'s statement shall receive all due attention.

The reason which we assigned in our last Number, for delaying the consideration of A. B.'s papers, remains in force.

*** The APPENDIX to Vol. XLVI. of the Monthly Review will be published on the 1st of June, with the Number for May.

Errors, p. 346, 368, 375, 377, 383, 384, 404, 406, 429, 435, 437, 440, 443.

APPENDIX

TO THE

FORTY-SIXTH VOLUME

OF THE

MONTHLY REVIEW

ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Traité du Fer*, &c.; *i. e.* A Treatise on Iron and Steel, containing a rational and systematic View of their Nature, the Method of constructing Furnaces, the Processes which are followed in the different Founderies, and the Modes of using these two Metals. With 15 Copper-plates. 4to. pp. 302. Paris. 1804. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 11s. 6d. sewed.

MOST of our printed accounts of the manufacture of iron and steel are imperfect and discordant. The characters of the different iron ores have been more distinctly treated than the principles and methods of their reduction; and, prepossessed by theories, or deceived by experiments performed in his laboratory, the scientific chemist recommends a plan of operations which provokes a smile from the unlearned forgeman. The volume which we here announce is chiefly valuable, as it proceeds from the pen of a person intimately conversant in the *practical* details of the subject which he professes to illustrate. In the first part of his work, he treats of iron; and in the second, of steel.

The first chapter is intitled an *Essay on Iron*. This metal, it is observed, differs from others in retaining, when malleable, a certain portion of the heterogeneous particles with which it is originally united. These particles, which belonged to the matrix of the ore, are converted by fusion into a glassy principle, which forms a bond of union among the metallic parts. If this slag, or glass, be either wholly or even in a great measure expelled in the smelting or hammering processes, the

metal is deprived of the requisite tenacity, and can no longer be applied to the purposes for which it was destined. On the glass of iron, likewise, depends the peculiar property which that metal possesses of furnishing its own solder.—From the rare occurrence of native iron, and the conformity between rust and pulverized ore, the author is induced to conjecture that the attenuated molecules of the metal contained in water, their natural solvent, are by it reduced at their formation into the state of calx, or rust: for thus 'they will mingle with their earthy matrices, and follow the destiny of the latter; that is to say, they will retain an earthy consistency, and undergo petrifaction, or crystallization, or assume the metallic form, in consequence of subterraneous heat,' &c.

Chap. 2. *Of the Glass.* The existence of the glass of iron is proved by the scoriæ of the smelting furnace. The first which appear on the surface of the fused metal have, in their fluid state, all the properties of real glass, and are formed into garden-bells, bricks, &c. This vitreous substance is likewise observed to ooze from the metal at the refinery, and under the blows of the forge hammer. The drops which issue from the *loop* and its subdivisions are either united in small clusters, or detached, and are of an earthy character. The former are obviously metallic; for they are attractable by the magnet: but the latter are vitreous, and are flattened on the under side by falling to the ground.—From several interesting experiments here stated, we are authorized to infer that this glassy principle diminishes by successive fusions, that it constitutes the solder of iron, and that its presence is essential to the metallic texture. Iron which contains a superfluous portion of this glass, of a good quality, may be freed from the excess by repeated castings and beatings. Glass of a refractory quality may also be separated, to a certain degree, from its metal, but not without decreasing the dimensions of the mass. The dose may be weakened, but the nature of the glass continues unchanged; and no process can add to its quantity.

In chap. 3. *Of Substances hurtful to Iron*, these are stated to be sulphur, arsenic, the phosphoric acid, &c. The first two may be detected by the ordinary practical methods, but the others only by delicate chemical processes.—The experiments here reported prove that 'metals and semi-metals' (an unchemical distinction) are unfriendly to the soldering of iron.

Chap. 4. *Of Ores.* The variety of colours, which prevails among iron ores, suggests several remarks in unison with the author's hypothesis of the origin of the metal. The principal ores are then classed under the threefold division of *ochres*, or earthy ores of a yellow tinge, *stony*, or *grey ores*, and those which

which are mineralized by sulphur, arsenic, or some other volatile substance; comprehending the *black*, *ferruginous*, or *metallic* sorts, and *pyrites*.

Accident first taught men that argillaceous ores harden in the furnace, while those which have lime for their matrix are converted into a calx. Experience then convinced them that a mixture of both, in certain proportions, produces a state of liquefaction the best adapted to the extraction of the metal. As these two species of ores seldom occur together, lime-stone is often substituted for the calcareous; and an earth abounding in clay, for the argillaceous. Pott first ascertained that the best proportions are one part of calcareous to three of argillaceous earth, or three parts of the former to one of the latter.

In conducting the assay of iron ores, it is properly observed that the operation should proceed on a large scale. The quantity tried should not be less than 500lb.; the furnace employed should be of the ordinary construction, and actually at work; and the specimen should be of the third casting, which is free from foreign admixtures. Trials in the small way, however, are not to be rejected, since they frequently indicate the comparative richness or poverty of the ore. Yet, in general, many experiments will be found necessary to ascertain the most productive result.

Chap. 5. *Working of the Ore.* The breaking and washing, and, in certain cases, the roasting of the ore on the spot on which it is dug, make such an obvious saving of carriage, that we are surprized to find the practice so often neglected by the manufacturer.—The following hint is also deserving of attention. 'At Eisenartz, the ore, though sulphureous, is not roasted, because it is presumed that the evaporation takes place during the fusion, by means of an increased expansion of the top of the furnace. The torrefying process might, perhaps, be omitted, in many places in which a belief of its utility depends on antient prejudices.'

Chap. 6. and 7. *Construction of a Furnace for smelting Iron.—Of the Workmen employed at the Furnace.* Under these titles, we observe nothing which is not generally known. The description of the furnace, which seems to be inferior to some of those that are used in our own country, will be best understood by the plates.

Chap. 8. *Refining, or Reduction of cast into malleable Iron.* Agreeably to his ideas already stated, the author regards cast iron as composed of metallic particles imbedded or dispersed in a vitreous mass, which prevents their mutual contact. The object of the refiner is, therefore, to remove as much of the glass as may admit a nearer approach of the particles,

without at the same time destroying their common bond of adherence. The globules of metal, previously freed from part of their surrounding medium, are, by reiterated blows of the hammer, extended into fibres; the glass, in its fluid state, readily submits to this configuration; and thus *toughness* is a characteristic of forged iron.

Chap. 9. *Working of the Iron at the Refinery.* The refining process depends, according to this writer, on two essential operations; namely, the highest degree of liquefaction, so as to promote the discharge of the superfluous glass, and imparting such a degree of consistency to the iron, after fusion, that it may be collected into one mass, and subjected to the hammer. That which is of most difficult consolidation is the dark grey cast, with a fine granulated fracture. Its conversion to the state of forged iron is much aided by the addition of metallic scoriæ, and of a piece of wrought iron, of fifteen or twenty pounds weight.—Besides many excellent remarks on the treatment of the *loop*, this chapter explains the formation of it into bars, and the slitting operation.

The 10th chapter treats on the *Formation of forged Iron.* The principles above stated are here again unfolded; and the attention of the reader is directed to the various modes of forging cast iron, as practised in Styria, Carinthia, Savoy, and Allevard in Dauphiny. Accidental circumstances and local prejudices will account for most of the differences observable in the mode of preparing this useful metal, at different and remote founderies. Long practice, combined with good sense and freedom from preconceived theories, will best determine the minutiæ of proceeding in any given situation.

Chap. 11. *Analysis of cast Iron.* The white, grey, and dark varieties are ascribed to the greater or less quantity of glass retained in their composition. In the white, the pores of the mass being charged with this principle, its fracture reflects all the rays of light; whereas, in the grey and blackish sorts, the pores being mostly empty absorb the rays. The colour of cast iron is likewise visibly influenced by the application of different degrees of moisture, &c.

Chap. 12. *Of our tests of cast Iron.* As the colour is also affected by the gradual or sudden cooling of the metal, the quality of the iron cannot safely be determined by inspection. It is only when forged and wrought that its genuine character is known. The manufacturer may, however, derive considerable benefit from the author's numerous experiments on fusion, since they appear to have been performed with great fairness and closeness of observation. We regret that they do not admit of abridgement.

In

In chap. 13. is discussed the *Mixture of Iron with different Metals.* For the experiments which are here exhibited, we must again refer to the work. The author's principal conclusions are, that a small quantity of copper and iron, when the fusion is suddenly cooled, produces an apparently homogeneous alloy: but that, if the mixture be effected in large masses, the two metals take the places assigned to them by their respective specific gravities; that their alloy cannot be re-cast without undergoing alteration; that more iron than copper is wasted in each act of fusion; and that the copper can never be wholly separated. With respect to tin, its combination with iron renders the latter hard and brittle: but it is capable of being wholly separated by repeated heatings.—Zinc resists all intimate combination.—The principal external characters of good cast iron are a granulated fracture of a bluish grey, and nearly as fine as that of polished steel; a specific gravity of 504 or 505 lbs. in the cubic foot; and a cohesion of parts that is not easily overcome.

Chap. 14. *Working of forged Iron.* Different degrees of heat are required in the working of iron, according to its peculiar character and destination: but for all ordinary occasions, the five degrees of the forgeman's scale are sufficiently accurate. Of these degrees, the welding heat is the most liable to failure; and the frequent unsuccessful attempts to catch the precise temperature are manifested in the small chinks of bars, gun-barrels, &c.—We are next presented with some useful observations on the mode of restoring overheated iron, the effects of hammering and nealing, the fibrous texture of forged iron, soldering, scoriæ, rust, &c. The subsequent facts are especially worthy of notice:

'The surface of iron, as it contracts rust, is unequally corroded, because the solvent attacks the metallic parts without affecting the glass; and the latter may be unequally diffused over the surface of the bar. The immersion of a piece of iron in an acid will convince us of this fact: for the dissolving principle, which attacks the metallic parts, would act uniformly on the surface of the iron, did it not contain glass on which the acid has no hold.

'Rust, like metallic scoriæ, forms at length a crust, more or less thick, according to the time during which the iron has remained in contact with its solvent, and the activity of the latter.

'Iron utensils employed in saltworks are soon covered with a thick rust: but this rust, which is formed in much less time than that produced by water, though very thick, is not deprived of its metallic properties; for nearly the whole of it is obedient to the magnet. We may presume that the marine acid has scaled the iron; for the rust produced by water is not attractable.

'Rust produced by water is of a deeper yellow than that produced by acids. That of the sulphuric acid is of a deeper tinge than that

of the other acids. That of the marine acid is of an earthy yellow. That of the nitrous acid is lighter than that of water.

'From the experiments made with these acids, we find that the sulphuric dissolves more iron than the marine and nitrous, and that the marine dissolves more than the nitrous.

'N. B. Forged or cast iron, which has not been subjected to the file, is not liable to rust, or, at least, suffers it very slowly.'

Chap. 15. *Characters of wrought Iron.* The author's directions may be of service in assisting our conjectures: but inspection alone, as he himself acknowleges, is always fallacious.

We are next presented, in chap. 16. with *the Catalonian method of manufacturing Iron:* but, to most readers, this description would be unintelligible without the plates.

Chap. 17. *Notes on the different sorts of Furnace Fuel.* Charred peat, after a fair and careful trial, was found to be inferior to charcoal; and the latter, in most cases, is preferable to coak.

The second part of the work is divided into twenty chapters, respectively treating *of Steel in general,—of natural Steel,—of cast Iron most suited to the manufacture of Steel,—of Fusion,—manufacture of Steel in Carinthia,—at Rives, in Dauphiny,—at Siegen, in the county of Nassau;—refining of Steel,—estimate of the expence of converting cast Iron into refined Steel,—table of the conversion of six plates of cast Iron into crude Steel, and of the refining of the latter,—tempering of Steel,—nealing of Steel,—of the spring of Steel,—peculiar tempering of different Tools,—case tempering,—dilatation of Steel compared with that of Iron,—working of Steel,—factitious, or cementation Steel,—observations on sabre blades, and other arms,—tests of Steel.*

From these titles, persons interested will easily perceive what are the parts of the subject which the author has thought it proper to illustrate. As we can neither analyse nor abridge his reasonings and observations, without detracting from their merits, or greatly transgressing our accustomed limits, we shall confine ourselves to a very few remarks; and the more willingly, because the most important practical details are well understood and successfully prosecuted in our own country.

In regard to the circumstances which constitute the particular modification of iron, denominated *steel*, the author's ideas, though somewhat novel, are perfectly consistent with his favourite doctrines already mentioned:

'Steel (says he) is composed of the same metallic particles as iron, but it contains more of them in the same bulk. The same cast iron yields iron or steel, according as it is treated: the art of making

making steel, then, consists in bringing the metallic parts together, in a smaller volume.

'We may form an idea of the difference between iron and steel, by comparing the former to a rope stuffed with tar, and the latter to the same rope, from which most of the tar has been extracted by heat, and the threads brought closer together by compression. If, at the same time, we compare the glass in the iron to the tar, and the glassy fibres to the threads of the same rope, we shall perceive that the process of converting iron into steel consists in disengaging, by a violent degree of heat, all the glass which is not necessary to the union of the metallic particles, and in producing a closer approximation of these particles by the strokes of the hammer. Such is the process for converting cast iron into what is called *natural* steel.

'If the glass be merely allowed to flow off, vacancies must take place between the metallic parts; and if the degree of heat be urged until their union be effected without the aid of the hammer, a factitious or *cementation* steel is obtained. This method is, in fact, practised in making steel of bar iron.

'The result of both these processes is only crude steel, which is unfit for use, until it has been refined; that is to say, until the number of its fibres, in the same bulk, be increased.

'We may form an idea of this operation by resuming the comparison of the rope. If we suppose it to be composed of a hundred threads, and doubled, we have the sum of two hundred threads; and four hundred by a second doubling. In like manner, the fibres of steel are doubled by bending, soldering, and beating it out, to preserve the same thickness; and so in succession. The first doubling gives to steel the name of the first mark, the second, that of the second mark, the third, that of the third mark, &c. The refining process is seldom pushed beyond the fourth mark, that degree sufficing for adapting steel to the finest works, in which steel of cementation is preferably used.'

The cast iron which produces the best steel has a white and specular fracture, such as that which is employed in Stiria, Carinthia, at Siegen, Bendorf, &c.

The scope of the author's text is to prove that the tendency of the several operations of fusion, hammering, and tempering, is to discharge part of the glass, and to increase the continuity of the metallic fibres.

He thus sums up the conclusion:

'All the preceding facts and observations will justify the opinion, that the hardness which iron receives from tempering, after having been cemented, is not owing to the carbon which combines with it during cementation, but really to the greater approximation of the metallic particles, which accumulate in proportion as they soften, and as the dilated air expels from the iron the glass which is extraneous to its steely character. It is to this approximation that I ascribe the difference between steel and iron; and it is this which, in my opinion, really constitutes steel.

'In like manner, we ought not to attribute the greater darkness of colour assumed by steel, when immersed in an acid, to the presence of carbon, but to the circumstance of its containing more metallic particles than iron, bulk for bulk. As the acid attacks the metal, without acting on the glass, the iron retains, in course, a greater degree of whiteness. To be convinced of this, we need only plunge a plate of iron and one of steel, of the same dimensions, in the vitriolic or nitrous acid. The steel plate will be progressively covered with a dingy and uniform shade: because its fibres being much compressed, the intervening layers of glass, which serve to solder them, are scarcely visible; whereas the fibres of the iron being more separated, their interposed glass is thicker, and, remaining untouched by the acid, its aspect is whiter. This comparative lightness of colour is increased by the streamlets of the glass which rise and spread along the iron bar during the heating, as has been sufficiently detailed in different parts of this treatise, especially in p. 8. experiments third and fourth, where it is clearly proved that glass is the solder of iron.'

Anonymous publications on complex and important subjects seldom excite high expectations. We are, therefore, rather surprized that a work like the present, fraught with solid and useful information, should, in this age of egotism, appear without a name. We trust, however, that the author's modesty will not stand in the way of his usefulness. If gentlemen who have directed their attention to any branch of trade or manufacture, and who unite the rare qualifications of a knowlege of scientific principles and an intimate acquaintance with practical details, would more frequently favour the public with the results of their studies, they would essentially contribute to multiply the resources, and advance the elegant accommodations of life. It would at all times afford us the sincerest pleasure to announce examples of that enlightened communication, which reflects the highest honour on professional men, placed at the head of large and active establishments.

While thus disposed to bestow all due commendation on the volume before us, we may be allowed to insinuate that the occasional introduction of collateral topics, not strictly technical, —such as the history of the early use of iron, the remarkable changes in national manners and character which are effected by this metal, and some account of those eminent naturalists and chemists, who have most successfully expounded its properties,—would have given a wider circulation to the didactic parts, and have relieved the dryness of the whole. The arrangement of the materials also appears, in some measure, liable to exception. A methodical exposition of the ores of iron, as they occur in nature, a classification of their characters, and an account of the manipulations which they undergo previously to fusion, should have preceded the discussions relative to the cast

and

and forged states of the metal; while the particulars concerning each of these states should have been more distinctly separated. In his enumeration of the *ochres*, or *yellow ores*, the author very unnecessarily extends these terms to *Prussian blue*, *black* magnetic *sand*, and *dark* coloured *micaceous* ore. On the other hand, martial *garnets*, and *red* and *black* hæmatites, are included under the *grey* ores.—The title of the first chapter is certainly too vague, and raises expectations which are not gratified. That of the tenth is equally inapplicable, since, instead of an *analysis of iron*, we meet with little else than an attempt to explain the varieties of colour produced by the quantity of glass, by the moisture of the mould, by the rotatory motion of the metal in a fluid state, &c.

This author has the merit of drawing the public attention to a part of the constitution of iron which has hitherto been much neglected: but granting to his glass the importance which he ascribes to it, we are not convinced that he *disproves* the affinity of iron for oxygen, nor the presence of carbon in cast iron and steel.

The furnaces and machinery are well described and accurately delineated in the plates. In general, they appear to be inferior to those which are used in this island. Had the author visited a British foundery, he could scarcely have failed to recommend the adoption of condensing cylinders instead of bellows, and to have detailed the construction of Watt's Steam Engine, that most beautiful exhibition of human ingenuity.

Muir.

ART. II. *Voyage dans les quatre Principales Isles des Mers d'Afrique*, &c.; *i. e.* Travels in the four Principal Islands of the African Seas, &c. By M. BORY DE ST. VINCENT.

[*Article concluded from the last Appendix, pp.* 449—459]

OUR traveller next relates, with more minuteness than interest, his excursion to the *Great Bason*, the DRY *River*, and the *River of the Rocks*. Among the few remarkable particulars which occurred during this part of his peregrinations in the Isle of France, was the absolute want of aquatic and marshy plants on the margin of the bason, although the nature and situation of the soil seemed to be singularly adapted to their growth. It appears, however, that *Equisetum hyemale*, which certainly affects swampy and moist places, greatly contributed to the general verdure; and, among the gramineous species, which are not discriminated, some may be indigenous to wet or flooded grounds.

In

In the bed of a rivulet were found many small basaltic prisms, from one to three inches in diameter, and from six to eight long; most of them are four-sided, and have very sharp angles.

Near the Dry River, is a current of basalt, which, during some antient eruption, has manifestly flowed over a stratum of bowlder-stones, fast tending to decomposition, and incorporated with an earth which, like that of the whole country, is comminuted lava. Both above and beneath the basaltic vein, runs a layer of pebbles, of various sizes, being fragments of divers lavas, and all connected by earth. This curious alternation of compact and decomposed lava is remarked at only 150 or 200 toises above the level of the sea. 'The intervals, then, which have elapsed between the volcanic eruptions which produced the compact matter, must have afforded leisure to vegetation and the waters to form strata of a different description. This is the only inference which we mean at present to draw from the facts here stated; and we shall wait for more proofs before we found a system.'

Volcanic productions and indigenous vegetation again form the chief objects of investigation in the range of coast from the Eastern River to the parish of St. Rose. The lavas which occur from St. Denis to the Point of Bourbier assume a character very distinct from those which had been hitherto observed; exhibiting neither *trapp*, nor *felspar*, nor *zeolite*, but abundance of *chrysolite* of a glassy lustre, and bright yellow colour. This chrysolite, in some places, obviously tinges the sand; which is composed of five tenths of compact basaltic lava, one tenth of particles of puzzolana, and other coloured lavas, and four tenths of chrysolitic grains, which, from their specific levity, uniformly affect the surface. On some districts lately vulcanized, is found a *Lobelia*, which, from its various aspects, the author designs *L. polymorpha*. It includes the *L. filiformis* and *L. serpens* of *Lamarck*. Three distinct varieties are described in the notes.

A current of lava at St. Rose deserves our notice, because it flowed from the mountain in 1708. Its rough, refractory, and scorious surface is already covered with *L. vulcani*, a new species of grey rock-moss, which should be placed between *L. paschalis* Lin. and *L. ramulosus* of Swartz. The other plants, which characterize this stream of lava, and indicate its presence by a low and peculiarly coloured vegetation, are, *Scirpus iridifolius*, *Andromeda salicifolia*, *Celtis orientalis*, *Andropogon aureum*, a species of *Cinchona*, and a beautiful *Dicksonia*. The date of the eruption is so far interesting, that it proves that vegetation may take place at no very distant period: but the

the precise term must be regulated by the nature of the lavatic surface, the climate to which it is exposed, and other accidental circumstances. The cylindrical apertures, observable in the substance of the lava, are formed by trunks of trees enveloped in the liquid mass. In other parts, these fragments of trees have been so rapidly consumed, as to leave only impressions of their forms.

The fatiguing and hazardous ascent to the top of an existing volcano composes the subject of the 13th chapter. We need hardly observe that, in the progress of this arduous march, the author's attention was chiefly solicited by various currents of consolidated lava, and several non-descript plants. Among the latter, we notice a beautiful *Pteris*, first observed at 250 or 300 toises above the level of the sea, and varying in its aspect according to the coolness of its situation, or the age of the lava on which it vegetates. When in full vigour, its stem is five or six inches in diameter, and four feet high. Its fronds, of a beautiful gay green, expand gracefully from the top, like the leaves of the palm-tree, and are two or three feet long.—The difficulty of procuring water had nearly proved fatal to the party; and the black attendants were more than once on the point of perishing from faintness and exhaustion. At length, some water of a very indifferent quality was discovered, and greedily swallowed. The travellers lay encamped during the night at some distance from the summit.

Shoes, pantaloons, and even limbs, were sadly disfigured next morning by the *insinuations* of a sharp and rough volcanic slag. Yet our intrepid journalist was not to be daunted; and the *Piton-Faujas* amply recompensed his toils. 'It presents a complete volcano in miniature, with all its appendages. Time seems to have respected all its peculiarities, and to have presented its form entire. A truncated cone, surmounted with its crater, a lateral vent on the side of the *rampart*, and a sunken hollow, from which a considerable stream of lava, issuing near the base, proceeded towards the Osmundian plain, are still visible.'—In respect of form, situation, and supposed origin, this diminutive volcano manifests a striking analogy to *Monte Nuovo*.

The eruption of the 24th June 1787 has left very marked traces of its progress. In the course of a week, the current of lava reached the sea, distant at least 3900 toises from its source, and the solid contents of ejected matter were calculated at eleven millions and seven hundred thousand cubic toises. Among the more elevated scoriæ, are found volcanic balls of a nature considerably different from any hitherto described. The largest exceed not a foot in diameter, and many are of the size of an egg.

egg. Their external compact crust, of about an inch in thickness, contains porous lava, irregularly scorified, and presenting considerable vacancies, which sometimes include water. The currents near the summit appear to have been arrested in an early stage of their descent; and their surfaces, in cooling, have assumed the most varied and whimsical configurations, as those of stairs, turbans, snails, intestines, brains, tortoises, &c.

When the adventurers were busied in exploring the top of the volcano, to which they had attained with much difficulty and considerable risk, sulphureous vapours and hollow noises excited their attention; and then, all at once, two columns of ignited matter, red hot in the midst of sun-shine, darted to the height of twenty toises. Fragments of rock, still unfused, and dragged along with the fiery tide, were projected from it with violence, and fell with a hideous crash, after having described a long parabola: while a rushing noise, like that of an immense cascade, accompanied the majestic scene. The name of *Dolomieu* was given to the elliptic crater from which these fire spouts issued.—On attempting to descend into the principal crater, on the side of the central cone, M. B. DE ST. V. was quickly compelled to retire, having been nearly suffocated by sulphureous vapours.

During the first night, the naturalists and their guides slept profoundly on this burning elevation. On the second,

'The negroes never closed their eyes; for they were less fatigued and more afraid than on the preceding evening. Our beds, too, were extremely rugged. I sometimes slumbered: but I was frequently awakened by the cold, and by the dreadful noises which occasionally proceeded from the volcano. This noise was quite different from the incessant uproar occasioned by the ascending spouts of fire, and resembled a continued discharge of musquetry, though somewhat louder. Flame every where surrounded us—a circumstance which always appeared to me new and incomprehensible, when I started from sleep. *Jovancourt* expressed his astonishment at our feeling no inconvenience from the heat of the volcano, when we lay so near its mouth; and certain it is that we could not thus have withstood the heat of an equal quantity of burning timber. Is this owing to the moderate temperature of volcanic fire, which may be supposed to fuse the objects which it attacks rather by its constancy than its violence? Or, should we ascribe it to a diminished transmission of caloric, caused by the rarity of the air in the regions of the atmosphere to which we had ascended?'——

'At sun-set, the thermometer stood at eleven, and at midnight, six above zero. Towards morning, it fell below the freezing point. At day-break, it rose again to five; and, at sun-rise, it quickly got up to ten.'

In

In descending from the peak, the travellers were again exposed to imminent dangers; having wandered in a thick fog, and consumed most of their provisions, and all their water. At length, however, they reached the sea-shore in safety, and rested from their toils.

It is particularly worthy of remark, that few or no basaltic prisms occur along the coast.

'They who believe that basaltic lavas owe the form under which they usually appear, to the sudden shrinking which they have experienced, on coming when in a state of fusion into contact with the sea, will expect that the coasts of the ocean should here resemble the sides of Fingal's cave: but no such phænomenon presented itself to my observation. Though the compact portions of the currents consist of a pure basaltic lava, the mass is nearly continuous along the whole extent of the volcanic field; and, wherever it is broken, it exhibits only unequal blocks, with irregular sides and angles, and never disposed in a series, like the pipes of an organ. These angular blocks, at first contiguous, are gradually separated by incessant beating of the waves, and, tumbling from their places, form a range of breakers which render this district of coast inaccessible.'

An eruption which occurred in 1791, from the Crater *Dolomieu*, is very circumstantially described, chiefly from a manuscript account communicated by M. *Berth*, an officer of intelligence and observation. During the night, and at the distance of some leagues, the current of lava presented the appearance of a large river, all on fire, which cast a gleam over the sky. In the day time, the fluid mass had a dull black aspect, and emitted white and thick smoke from its upper surface. M. *Berth* remained several minutes within three or four feet of the stream, without being much incommoded by the heat. Though the surface becomes solid in a few seconds, the fluid part of the current frequently breaks through this thin incrustation, and forms fresh streamlets which harden in turn. Besides crystals of sea-salt, formed by the liquid matter coming in contact with the ocean, M. *Berth* observed in the lava martial vitriol, in the form of minute globules on foot-stalks, and very small quantities of a species of mineral alkali, but no sal ammoniac.

The eruption, which broke through the Rampart on the 2d November 1800, is described by M. *Hubert*, an eye-witness, in language well calculated to rouse the most torpid mind. In one place, we are informed,

'The lava fell in three separate currents, and in a perpendicular direction, from the height of eighty or a hundred feet. The middle stream was fluid as water, the other two flowed with the apparent consistency of honey.—This eruption was the only one which presented me with the spectacle of such a fine cascade of fire. I am, moreover, indebted to it for two observations which are new to me. When the

lava

lava reached the sea, we remarked fragments of slag, some as large as a man's fist, thrown to the height of fifteen or twenty feet. On attending to all the circumstances, it was easy to perceive that their projection was owing to water reduced to a state of vapour.

'The steam which proceeded from the blending of the waves with the lava was impregnated with salt. The neighbouring trees, the rocks, and our own bodies, were speedily whitened with this salt, which fell in a very fine powder. The sea, very boisterous in this place, struggled, with hideous uproar, against the lava which encroached on its domain; and, constrained to retreat before its masses, it left them nevertheless often covered with water, which also was converted into crystals of salt. From this last proceeded the impalpable powder, which was wafted aloft by the smoke and the impulse of the aqueous vapour. Should we not ascribe the formation of sea-salt found in volcanos to events similar to that which I now relate?'

M. *Hubert* likewise observed a large stone and many pebbles cast by the sea into the burning stream, in which they remained imbedded. Geologists may, at some future period, reason very profoundly on the manner in which these extraneous bodies have been incorporated with the basaltic mass.

With the traveller, we are now glad to repose, for a moment, from the contemplation of solitude and dreary masses of volcanic scoriæ. In the quarter of St. Joseph, we again meet with traces of culture and inhabitants. The latter are chiefly composed of maroon hunters, and are men of colour, without landed property, born free from father to son, whose wives are purchased slaves, and whose children are black. They are too proud to stoop to regular labour; yet, habituated to privations of every kind, they are at once active, indefatigable, and slothful. So very tenacious are they of their *white* original, that they deem it an insult to be called *men of colour*, or *free negroes*. 'Just but stern to their slaves, when they have any, they are cruel and unrelenting to the unfortunate maroons who fall within their gripe. In other respects, they are frank, full of candour, incapable of suspecting deceit, hospitable, and generous. Nearly abandoned to a state of nature, hardly do they know that a mother-country exists. The revolutionary commotions which shook the *universe*, and which had excited fatal disturbances even in Bourbon, respected the deep forests which shade the basis of the volcano.'

The author notices the intense cold to which the plain of the Caffres is obnoxious, and assigns as its cause the particular disposition of the gorges of the mountains. It frequently proves fatal to men and other animals who have been previously overheated.—The sandy plain is distinguished by superb ranges of basaltic pillars. Their history and that of similar columnar

prisms in the Isles of France and Bourbon sufficiently convince the ingenious traveller, 1st, that they are not produced in the humid way; and, 2dly, that their regular forms are not affected by the immersion of their fluid materials in the sea.

'The island of Reunion, wholly volcanic, and full of basaltic prisms, most of which are interposed between scoriæ, puzzolana, and other matters which the most incredulous are obliged to recognize as productions of fire—the island of Reunion, I say, is a large volcanic laboratory, in which all has been liquid. The antient fluidity of its basalts is proved by their interjected strata, by the sulphur, by the crysolitic nodules, and by the pyroxene contained in their substance. The currents which have been seen in a fluid state, in our own times, afford still more decisive evidence. Any person may now discover beneath the shapeless blocks of scoriæ, which conceal them, prisms in all respects analogous to the compact and basaltic currents, and of the very same substance.'

In the course of a second journey to the top of the volcano, the author and his companions pitched their camp on the very edge of the Rampart, that they might contemplate the conflagration during the night. 'Our fires having gone out, (he says) the cold, which was now very intense, again awakened me. The mercury had fallen to $2\frac{1}{2}$ below the freezing point. As I was busied in rekindling the fire, on which I had thrown some twigs of heath, the mountain diffused an uncommon splendour. A hideous noise, frequently repeated, was followed by a multitude of grand and beautiful rockets of lava, which, darted from the crater to more than the height of two hundred feet, bore some sort of resemblance to a girandole. Never did I witness a more striking spectacle.'

We should be happy to conduct our readers over the interesting ground termed the *Inclosure* or *Rampart:* but it now behoves us to economize our extracts; and one glance of the plates will often explain more than whole pages of text. Suffice it to mention that this extended plain, encompassed by strata of different lavas to the height of three hundred feet, and upwards, is conjectured to be an extinct volcano, which once contained a boiling lake of basalt six miles in diameter.

On the march to the *Piton de Neige*, several European mosses were remarked. The *Lichen giganteus*, however, is a nondescript. It is the largest of the fruticulous division of this numerous family, and, in habit and aspect, approaches to the *rangiferinus:* but it is much larger, is of a whiter grey, and its branches, instead of nodding, are separated into small dichotomous or trichotomous divisions, forked at the extremities. We may here remark that the author has considerably enlarged the Cryptogamic class of vegetables; and we are happy to announce

announce that the botanists to whom he has imparted the contents of his herbal, especially MM. *Bridel* and *Palisot-Beauvois*, intend shortly to publish them in a scientific form.

Nearly the whole of the twenty-second chapter is hypothetical; and, though composed with spirit and some degree of eloquence, it is an aukward attempt to revive Buffon's exploded theory of the earth; or something very like it. A reader might suppose that the writer had really witnessed the process of making a planet from a chip of the solar mass, with such minuteness and emphasis does he expound his doctrine. Amid all his fine reasoning, he seems never to have been aware that the sun may be no ignited body, but opaque, like the planets which revolve around him, and only encompassed by a luminous atmosphere. The existence of an immense accumulation of fire in the earth's centre is at best gratuitous; and history will not easily convince us that the heat of our globe is gradually increasing, that the world is in its decrepitude, or that the moon has already undergone a general calcination, and is mere volcanic slag. In like manner, we cannot concur in the idea that the polymorphous aspect of some plants, and the existence of a mis-shapen bird, in the Isles of France and Bourbon, denote the first and imperfect rudiments of creation. On the same principles, a few stunted, hybrid, or luxuriant species of vegetables, conjoined with the appearance of the ostrich and the camel, would prove the recent existence of Egypt or Arabia. We cannot believe that water is the source of all organization; nor that infusorial animalcules, zoophytes, &c. are less perfect in their kinds than the lord of this nether creation, who, in his ignorance, boldly pronounces on the causes and gradation of organized existences.

Some days of toilsome march in the lower districts of Bourbon were by no means unfruitful in observations: but for these we must refer to the work, and proceed homeward with the tired journalist, with all convenient expedition. As he waited for a passage to Europe, he visited the small island of *Tonneliers*; where he rescued two fragments of an atmospheric stone from an ignoble wall, in which they had been kept in durance by vulgar plaster. In their fracture, they correspond to similar substances from l'Aigle in Normandy. The mass had, it is said, fallen not long before from a luminous cloud, which exploded with great violence, and disclosed a bright globe of fire, to the amazement of several ladies, who were enjoying the cool of the evening on the quay. The theory of the fall of such stones, which is here very pompously detailed, carries its confutation along with it. They were projected, forsooth, from immense depths, in an early stage of the earth's existence,

when ignivomous mountains were indued with propelling forces sufficient to drive masses of matter into the regions in which they were constrained to obey, for ages, the combined laws of impulse and gravitation; until, in the progress of time, their spiral revolutions at length terminated on the surface of their native earth.

With equal confidence, our bold *projector*, when confined by indisposition, favours us with the outlines of a chimerical scheme for excluding the British from the continent of India.

St. Helena, at which M. B. DE ST. V. touched on his homeward passage, gives rise to some lively and entertaining remarks, though a few of them savour of French flippancy. Considering that he was not allowed to explore the island, we must give him credit for the information which he could snatch from random glances. Besides several plants, he has discriminated thirteen varieties of lava.—His relation of the accident, which had nearly proved fatal to the surgeon of the vessel, is recorded with feeling.—In conclusion, we have to observe that activity of pursuit, accurate description of natural productions, a correct and animated style, and striking illustrations of the text afforded by the plates, eminently distinguish these volumes of travels, and dispose us to overlook some crude reasoning, and a few puerile traits of individual and national vanity.

Subjoined to the Travels is an interesting letter from the elder *Hubert*, relative to a recent eruption of the volcano of Bourbon. The heat of the flowing lava, on this occasion, seems to have considerably exceeded the temperature noticed by M. *Berth;* since it proved insupportable at the distance of twenty-five toises.

To the whole is annexed a copious and satisfactory index. Muir.

ART. III. *Dictionnaire des Sciences Naturelles*, &c.; *i. e.* A Dictionary of the Natural Sciences; treating, in methodical Order, of the different Beings of Nature considered by themselves, according to the actual State of our Knowlege, or in the Relations of Utility which they bear to Medicine, Agriculture, Commerce, and the Arts; to which are annexed biographical Notices of the most celebrated Naturalists.—A Work adapted to Physicians, Agriculturists, Manufacturers, Artists, Merchants, and all those who are interested in knowing the Productions of Nature, their generic and specific Characters, their native Habitations, their Properties, and their Uses. By several Professors of the National Museum of Natural History, and of the other principal Schools of Paris. Vols. I. and II. 8vo.; and one 4to Number of Plates. Paris. 1804. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 1s. sewed.

SUCH is at present the prevailing taste for the study of Natural History on the continent, that we have no sooner completed

our account of an extensive Dictionary of that Science *, than we are called to announce the publication of a similar undertaking, executed in the same language, and in the same city. Though comparisons are not always desirable, neither are they always easily avoided; and when two large and respectable works on the same subject are presented to a reviewer at nearly the same time, he feels himself forcibly impelled to weigh their relative merits.

So far, then, as we may be allowed to judge from the limited evidence before us, the present performance, in more than one respect, excels its predecessor. In the first place, the application of natural productions to the arts and accommodations of life forms a more prominent feature in its character. Secondly, the intimate connection between chemistry and natural history is more pointedly recognized. Thirdly, the vocabulary embraces a wider range of synonyms, and even many foreign and provincial appellations. Fourthly, we have hitherto stumbled on no crude theories, nor vague declamation. Fifthly, the ensuing exposition of the names of the contributors, and of their respective departments, bespeaks a more powerful concentration of professional talents.

Mineralogy and Geology have been assigned to *Al. Brongniart*, Professor of Natural History, in the central school of the four Nations:—the general articles of Natural History, especially of Zoology, with Anatomy, Physiology, the History of Reptiles and Worms, &c. to *G. Cuvier*, Perpetual Secretary to the National Institute, Professor in the College of France, and in the Museum of Natural History, and to *G. F. Cuvier*, his associate:—the History of Insects, to *C. Duméril*, Professor in the School of Medicine:—the History of Birds, to *Ch. Dumont*, Member of several learned Societies:—Chemistry, in its applications to Natural History and the Arts and Sciences, to *A. Fourcroy*, Member of the National Institute, Counsellor of State, Professor in the Museum of Natural History, and in the Medical and Polytechnic Schools:—the History of the Mammiferous Animals, to *Et. Geoffroy*, Professor in the Museum of Natural History, and Member of the Egyptian Institute:—Botany, to *A. L. de Jussieu*, Professor in the Museum of Natural History, and Member of the National Institute, with *Beauvois*, *Desportes*, *Duchesne*, *Jaumes*, *Massé*, *Petit-Radel*, and *Poiret*, for associates:—the History of Fishes, to *B. G. E. L. Lacépède*, Member of the Conservative Senate, and of the National Institute, and Professor in the Museum

* See Rev. Vol. xlv. N. S. p. 490. *Appendix.*

of Natural History *:—Astronomy and Natural Philosophy, to *S. F. La Croix*, Member of the National Institute, Professor in the central school of the four Nations, and in the Polytechnic School:—the History of Molusca, Radiarii, and Polypi, to *J. B. La Marck*, Member of the National Institute, and Professor in the Museum of Natural History, assisted by Dr. *Duvernoy*:—Vegetable Physiology, to *C. F. B. Mirbel*, Assistant Naturalist to the Museum of Natural History, and Professor of Botany in the Republican Lyceum:—Agriculture to *H. A. Tessier*, Member of the National Institute, of the Medical and Agricultural Schools, of the General Council of Agriculture, Arts, and Commerce, and of the Administration of the Home Department;—and some general economical articles, to *Coquebert-Mombret*.

Most of these individuals are already very advantageously known to the learned in Europe; and the facilities, which their professional situations afford in the prosecution of their respective lines of contribution, with the consideration of responsibility attached to their signatures, allow us to augur very favourably of their labours. The two present volumes bring down the alphabetical series only to *Argenture*, inclusive. Among the most satisfactory and circumstantial articles which we have remarked, are, *Abeille*, *Acide*, *Agneau*, *Aigle*, *Albatros*, *Animal*, *Antennes*, *Anthracite*, *Antilope*, *Antimoine*, *Araignée*, *Arbre*, and *Argent*.

Abeille includes an abridged and distinct view of the very interesting history of the Bee. In treating of this insect in general, and of the honey species in particular, the author has made a commendable use of the writings of *Réaumur*, *Hubert*, and *Schirach*. Among a great variety of other curious facts, he states that the whole body of a drone is in a state of vibration, when it hums. Though deprived of its wings, it is capable of producing a sound exactly similar, and probably the same with its former hum. Even when the legs are cut off with scissors, the trunk retains its tremulous motion, and utters an audible noise. If immersed in water, many air-bubbles are disengaged from it: but though the mutilated insect be taken out alive, it is no longer sonorous. 'This experiment, however incomplete, tends at least to prove, that the humming of bees is not occasioned by a strong vibration of the internal part of the upper wings, but rather by a tremulous affection of the entire body; and, perhaps, even by the escape

* In the articles included under the letter *A*, he received the assistance of the late M. *Daudin*.

of a greater quantity of air through the stigmata. This last would amount to a sort of voice.'

Two remarkable observations are here adduced, to prove that the fruitfulness of the females results from the peculiar nature and larger portion of paste-like nutriment administered to their larvæ.

'First, it has been ascertained that the larvæ of neuters, lodged in cells contiguous to that of a female, became larger, and furnished neuters, which laid some eggs, the larvæ of which proved to be males. This observation, which was first made by M. *Rierns*, has been since confirmed by the direct and very ingenious experiments of M. *Hubert*, who has acquired the faculty of changing at pleasure the larvæ of females into neuters, and of neuters into females. The second observation corroborates the first. It has been remarked that, if the larvæ of the females accidentally perish, or, if the mother be taken from the hive, and the neuters prevented from migrating, they enlarge the cells of two or three of the larvæ of the working bees, and administer to them the paste which is destined to develope their sex.'

Seventy species of *Apis* are here characterized, with more or less regard to minute discriminations.

Of the article *Acide*, it is sufficient commendation to mention that it is penned by the celebrated *Fourcroy*. His introductory and general statements, on this important subject, are especially deserving of attention; and they may, at the same time, serve as no unfavourable sample of the present publication:

'As the term acid is so frequently pronounced, and as it occurs in almost every page of every book of science, and even of economy, it becomes necessary to exhibit a precise notion of its import, and of the subject which it denotes; for we should also reflect that the acids are found in great abundance, that they perform a very important part in the phænomena of nature, and that they are of very frequent and acknowleged utility in the conduct of processes connected with the arts.

'Acids are bodies of a sharp taste, more or less pungent, and which redden several blue vegetable colours. Every substance, which possesses these two properties, is necessarily an acid. These characters, however, are often much varied, and very unequally marked in the different acids. Some of them, on account of their very powerful action, are ranked among the most terrible poisons, and therefore cannot be tasted until copiously diluted in water. Others, on the contrary, have a very weak acidulous taste; while many intermediate degrees exist between the two extremes.

'The juice of the lemon, gooseberry, and cherry, vinegar, verjuice, and a great number of vegetable substances, indicate the general properties of acids, and suffice to denote their characters, though in a weak degree.

'Antient

'Antient chemists entertained very inaccurate and even very false ideas of the nature of acids. Being guided by imagination rather than experience, they considered them as simple salts. Some ascribed their peculiar properties to a fixed fire; though the greater number believed them to be formed of water and earth. They admitted an elementary acid as the principle of all the others, which were formed from it by different modifications. All these ideas were erroneous; and the true and general doctrines respecting the acids only began to be perceived in consequence of the discoveries relative to air, elastic fluids, and combustion. The whole of our present knowlege, with respect to the general nature of these bodies, may be reduced to the following propositions; which all rest on positive, multiplied, and accurate experiments:

'1. Every acid is a compound body, proceeding from combustion, and formed by the union of one or more combustible bodies with the base of that part of the air which alone supports combustion.

'2. Hence, all the acids have a common principle, denominated acidifying, or oxygen, which originates in the air, and to which they owe their acid property.

'3. If all the acids have a common principle, the source of their common properties, they should each contain an appropriate matter, the source of their individual properties, or of their specific characters.

'4. This appropriate matter in each acid is called its radical, because it is the first cause or root of its particular properties.

'5. Hence, each of these compounds, or burned bodies, has two denominations; namely, that of acid, which denotes its state of oxygenated or acidified matter, and that which expresses its radical. Thus the terms sulphuric, phosphoric, carbonic, added to that of acid intimate that sulphur, phosphorus, or carbon, is combined with oxygen in the acids so denominated.

'6. The portion of the acidifying principle, or of the oxygen, not only varies in its combinations with the different acidified radicals, but it even varies in the same acid, and consequently occasions a variety in its acid nature and force. An acid slightly oxygenated, or weakly acidified, is expressed by adding the termination *ous* to its specific epithet; and when the acid is completely oxygenated, or strongly acidified, its name terminates in *ic*. Agreeably to this distinction, we say sulphurous and sulphuric acid, phosphorous and phosphoric acid.

'7. Many acids are decomposed by combustible bodies, sometimes by the aid of heat, and sometimes by simple contact in any temperature. It is sufficient for this purpose to employ a combustible body which has a greater affinity than the radical of the acid has for oxygen: thus, red hot charcoal decomposes the sulphuric acid, &c.

'8. The acids are divided into three classes, or orders, according to the different nature of their radicals. The first order comprehends those of which the radical is simple, or has not hitherto been decomposed; as the sulphuric, phosphoric, and carbonic acids, of

which sulphur, phosphorus, and carbon, form the radicals. The second order includes those acids of which the radicals are composed of two simple bodies united; thus, hydrogen and carbon constitute, by their simultaneous union with oxygen, the vegetable acids. The third order contains the acids with triple radicals. Animal matters afford examples of such acids, their radical being compounded of hydrogen, azote, and carbon, jointly united with oxygen.

'9. Besides these three orders of acids, there are some of the acids,—few, indeed, in number, since there are only three species out of more than thirty at present ascertained,—which have not been decomposed, of which the radicals are unknown, and into which oxygen is admitted only on the score of analogy. These are the muriatic, fluoric, and boracic acids.

'10. These four orders of acids have general characters which distinguish them; and which, by discriminating them from one another, enable us to recognize them with ease and certainty.

'Acids of the first order, or with simple radicals, are all decomposable by red charcoal, and cannot be converted into one another. They are easily manufactured.

'Acids of the second order are decomposed spontaneously, and by their inherent powers. Art, like nature, can convert them into one another, because this conversion requires only a change of proportions among their constituent principles.

'Acids of the third order are the most liable of all to decomposition. They easily pass, especially by the help of an elevated temperature, into ammonia and carbonic acid, by the exchange of their four principles, and by their union into two binary compounds. They are likewise capable of passing to the state of some vegetable acids.

'Lastly, the acids of the fourth order resist every process of decomposition, preserving their acid and identical nature, in whatever manner they are treated.

'11. In decomposing acids with simple radicals, the combustible bodies employed in the decomposition are burned by the disengaged oxygen of the acids, so that the latter may be said to be *un*burned (*débrûlés*), and brought back to the state of combustible bodies, by being deprived of their radicals, while the matters employed in the decomposition are burned, and frequently even acidified. This phænomenon is of frequent occurrence, both in nature and in art.

'12. We may conceive from what has just been stated, that the acids are very useful agents in chemical operations, and excellently fitted to discover the nature and properties of the bodies on which they are made to act, and which are made to act on them in turn. Their action on bodies consists either in the alteration to which they subject them, by decomposing themselves, and imparting oxygen to them, or in the simple dissolution which they effect on them by uniting with them, without decomposition on either side.

'13. This double action, and all the phænomena to which it gives rise, as well as the compounds which it produces, exists both in the vast laboratory of nature, and in the laboratories of art. We must know how to appreciate them with accuracy, if we would form proper

per notions concerning the production of a great many natural compounds in the mineral, vegetable, and animal departments. They form, in fact, an essential part of the knowlege which has been acquired respecting mineralization, vegetation, and animalization.

'14. From what has been said in the preceding thirteen sections, we may understand the different modes of classing the acids which have been followed by different chemists. The distinction of acids into mineral, vegetable, and animal, recalls the different binary compositions of the first, ternary of the second, and quaternary of the third. The division and distribution of acids, according to the number of their constituent principles, depend on the same views of the subject.

'15. The classification of acids according to their formation, natural, or artificial, is a method more interesting, when considered with respect to natural history, and will demand our attention for a moment.

'All the known acids do not exist in nature: some are the products of chemical agents: bnt the greatest number are compounds, indebted for their origin to that ever active power, which every where manifests chemical actions and phænomena. In fact, only some are found in a pure and detached state, as the carbonic, sulphuric, and boracic acids. Most of them occur only in combination with earths, alkalis, and metals; even the three preceding existing also in this state. The vegetable acids are disguised and sheathed in mucilages and extracts, in the heart of plants. With respect to the comprehension and explanation of all these facts, a knowlege in chemistry is indispensable to the naturalist; at the same time that it enables him to form proper conceptions of a multitude of natural effects, which would always remain obscure, if not enlightened by the touch of chemistry.'

M. *Cuvier*'s contributions are in general excellent. His observations on the term *Animal* obviously proceed from a mind which has been long accustomed to reflect on those minute gradations, by which the different classes of natural beings pass into one another, and which so much perplex the framers of artificial arrangements. His neat and succinct view of the animal economy, especially as contrasted with the vegetable, will amply reward the trouble of perusal. He likewise enters into some judicious and interesting discussion relative to the soul of brutes. From various facts, which cannot be disputed, he infers that the inferior animals exercise perception, memory, judgment, and habit: but they seem to be incapable of abstract language, of conducting trains of argumentation, or of transmitting acquired experience to their posterity. The erect attitude of man, which allows him the free use of the upper part of his body for contemplating surrounding objects; the form of his hands, which is admirably adapted to the sense of touch; the organs of his voice, which facilitate the con-

struction of a rich and harmonious language; and the protracted term of his education; give a very decided superiority to his faculties, when compared with those of the brute creation. Yet these faculties are not essential to our thinking substance, since it may often be deprived of them by disease, or by accident. A violent blow, or the pressure of age, may reduce the greatest genius to a state of childhood, or of mere animal existence. 'There exists, then, in our body, a certain part, the sound state of which constitutes a condition of thinking: we think only with this organ, as we see only with the eye. Let it be observed, however, that this is a simple fact in natural history, and which has no connection with the metaphysical system, termed materialism; a system founded in weakness, since our ideas of the essence of matter are still more imperfect than those which we form of the thinking principle, and since, of consequence, it explains none of the difficulties of this profound mystery.'

As an example of the description of a species, under the article of its genus, we shall quote the *Tarantula.*

'61. Tarantula Spider, *Aranea Tarantula.*

'Albin. Aran. 64. pl. 38. Baglivi, Dissertat. Tarent.

'*Caract.* Brown, with ash-coloured edges; abdomen marked by a dorsal line, and dark triangular spots; the underside of the legs spotted with brown.

'This celebrated spider seems to have borrowed its name from the town of Tarentum in Italy, where it is said to abound. From the disposition of its eyes, the form of its body, and its manner of living, it appears to belong to the section of hunters. Yet, when the laying period approaches, it fixes on a retreat in a dry soil. This hole is usually vertical, some inches deep, and from four to eight lines in diameter. It lines the sides of it with a very loose web, and takes its station at the entrance. Thence it springs on the insects which approach its dwelling, drags them to the bottom of its hole, and there almost entirely devours them. Like the pouch-spider, it carries its eggs along with it wherever it goes. When the young are hatched, they climb on their mother's back, and make her appear so deformed, that one cannot at first sight recognize her. During winter, it retires into its little den, and has the precaution to shut the entrance. There it dies, or remains torpid till the fine days of early spring, when it again quits its cell.

'Much has been written on the pretended poison of the tarantula; which, it has been alleged, occasions a morbific affection, called tarantism, and which cannot be cured until the person bitten by the spider be roused to dance by the sound of music, and continue in violent motion till he fall down, exhausted by fatigue and perspiration. This pretended disease is a popular fable in Italy. No living physician has indicated such effects from the puncture of this insect, although

though the pretended symptoms were, immoderate fits of singing or laughing, weeping or laughing without a cause, or sleep almost lethargic. Some quacks still vaunt the possession of secrets or powders, which cure this malady: but they are mere empirics.

'This insect occurs in almost the whole of Italy, and in the South of France: but the species which we have described has been confounded with several others.'

Amphibole and *Anthracite* are neatly discussed: but the mineralogical articles, in general, are executed with less distinctness and precision than in the Dictionary which was lately under our consideration. A few other articles, such as *Acier*, *Ambre-gris*, and some parts of *Agriculture*, are slight and superficial; and, since the explanation of foreign and local terms forms part of the plan of this publication, the catalogue of both might have been greatly extended.

The plates are little more than outlines of the objects represented: but these outlines are strong and correct.

On closing these volumes, we must again express our regret that no similar dictionary, on the same extensive scale, has been undertaken in this country.

Muir.

ART. IV. *Le Troubadour*, &c.; *i. e.* The Troubadour; Occitanic Poems, published by FABRE D'OLIVET.

[*Article concluded from the last Appendix. p.* 489.]

THE second volume of this entertaining work opens with '*the Court of Love*,' a piece of some length, and of varied merit. The chivalrous institution, from which it takes its name, was a school of poetry and valour, and a tribunal which took cognizance of such differences as arose between knights, ladies, and poets; and the present performance is a feigned representation of one of these Love Courts, consisting of fragments fashioned into the semblance of a whole. Some of the passages we believe to have been composed by the Troubadours, whose names they bear.

In the exordium, the poet celebrates with emotion the return of a Provençal spring, and, wafted on the wings of fancy from the gloomy rocks of the Lozere to the fertile banks of the Rhône, he indulges in a strain of fond recollection:

'I see again,' he exclaims, 'the plains of Provence—already I breathe an air more gentle, and exhilirating: already my eyes open on the splendour of a purer sky. Through the fragrant foliage of an orange-grove, I behold the stately battlements of the castle, in which Love dictates its decrees.—It is the castle of *Romanin*. What immense crowds flock around it!—Stay, young damsels, and tell me whither you bear these garlands of flowers? Who are those beauties who

who advance? Wherefore vibrate those melodious accents on the ear? Whither go these Troubadours and Minstrels, arrayed in rich apparel?

'I understand.—'Tis May-day. Spring recalls the Floral Games, and the Court of Love is opened in the castle of *Romanin*.—'Tis well—The return of spring invites me, too, to sing; and the renewed enamel of the meadow bids me deck my lays with all the tints of the flowers. I accompany you into those magnificent halls, in which are erected the thrones of the graces: I penetrate unseen into the midst of this heavenly tribunal: I listen to the tale of the Troubadour, and to the lay of the Minstrel: I witness the combats of the knights: I engrave on my memory the awards of the Ladies; and, enraptured with the romantic scenery, I snatch my pencil, that I may transmit the picture to posterity.

'The hall allotted to this charming assembly is hung, from the cieling to the floor, with costly tapestry, on which real flowers conceal those that the art of the embroiderer had portrayed. From the vaulted roof are suspended a thousand garlands, skillfully interwoven, varied by a thousand colours, and forming a spectacle of delight. The zephyrs, gently sporting in the midst of them, agitate them with graceful vibrations, and at intervals detach those vagrant leaves, which, after fluttering in the air, fall on the bosom of Beauty. The floor of this enchanting apartment is strewed with rosemary, marjoram, myrtle, and other fragrant boughs. The vestibules, the stair-cases, and even the courts of the castle are covered with branches of pomegranate, flowering orange-trees, and laurel; and these are decorated with ribbands, and loaded with amorous devices.

'The Ladies, who preside at this Court, enter the hall, each bearing her emblematical flower. At their head I perceive *Phania* of Gantelme, a fair and learned dame, mistress of the castle of *Romanin*, and sovereign of the Court of Love. In her hand she holds a stalk of lilies, the symbol of wisdom and of virtue. She is followed by *Adalazia* of Avignon, and the Countess of *Die*. The amaranth which adorns the one bespeaks her noble lineage; and the mournful marigold betrays the sorrow of the other, who weeps for a faithless swain. A wreath of humble violets encircles the hair of *Claretta* of Baux, and paints her modest virtues. A nosegay of eglantine distinguishes *Elyonne* of Sabran, who delights in rural retirement. The rose-bud expands on the bosom of the beautiful *Elyz*,' &c.

Troubadours and Minstrels follow next in the procession. The poet invokes the sovereign lady of the Court to aid his recollection of those illustrious romancers and musicians, and to render him worthy of rehearsing their lays. 'Alas!' continues he, 'I, too, was wont to appear among these festive throngs. I, too, came forwards, skilled in the gay science, to contend for the palm of song, and to receive from the hand of Beauty the flower which proclaimed my victory. These happy days are gone, never to return.'—At length his reverie is interrupted by music and the songs of the bards.

The

The poem consists of three parts: 1. *Songs and Games*; 2. *Tensons and Sirventes*; 3. *Tournaments and Decrees of Love.* *Guiraud de Calanson* opens the exhibition, by celebrating, in vocal strains, the powers of music and of poetry; and the excentric *Peter Vidal*, of Toulouse, next sings the story of his loves.

'Scarcely had *Guiraud de Calanson* ended his song, when a tall and well made man, clothed in an eastern robe, approached him, and, taking him by the hand, said; "you have read my instructions, and you have profited by them; for I recognize my ideas and some of my verses." "And who are you," replied *Guiraud,* "who presume thus to accost me?"—"I am," replied the unknown, "*Peter Vidal* of Toulouse. I have just returned from the holy wars, in which I served under the valiant king Richard." At the mention of this name, *Guiraud*, embracing him, exclaimed, "you are my master: to the perusal of your works, I publickly confess, I owe my feeble talent; and I now return you my respectful acknowledgments."

'While the spectators were discoursing of the whimsical character and superior talents of *Vidal*, this Troubadour, having requested silence, began thus;

"May my songs, inspired by love, breathe this day the pleasure which I experience. She whom I love smiles on my transports, and realizes my hopes by her promises.

"The sky was serene, the air mild, not a breath stirred the dust, or deformed the enamel of the flowers. I rose with the morning to inhale its coolness, when lo, as I roamed in the fields, I perceived a young knight, beautiful as the day, advancing towards me. The eyes of this unknown knight beamed benignity and tenderness, his nose was well proportioned, his teeth were like the brightest silver, his mouth was blooming and smiling, his person noble and graceful. His robe was interspersed, and his head crowned with flowers. The snow-white of his palfrey was marked with divers ebon and purple spots; his saddle-bow was of jasper, the housing of sapphires, and the stirrups of chalcedony. A dame of exquisite beauty journeyed by the side of the knight. The delicacy of her complexion vied with the rose of spring, and her neck and her hands rivalled the lily in whiteness. Her fair locks, bright as gold, were interwoven with flowers. Her eyes were sparkling, and her shape was genteel, without being slender. Her light and splendid attire concealed only part of her charms. All the riches of the east shone on her palfrey, which was covered with a netting of silver fringe. A squire and a damsel followed next. The squire had an ivory bow, and a quiver containing three darts, the first of gold, the second of burnished steel, and the third of lead. He flourished in his hand a switch of rose-tree. As for the damsel, I could not distinguish her features, nor see the colour of her eyes, for her flowing hair reached to her zone, and served her for a veil.

"They paced along, chaunting a new air, with which the woods resounded, and which the birds emulously repeated. They said that disloyal knights and ladies, who make a traffic of love, should be crowned

crowned with nettles, and condemned to appear at the Courts of Love, mounted, in a reversed attitude, on the obstinate animal which carries grain to the mill.

" When I had come up with them, I saluted them, and paid them my respects. The knight courteously answered, ' May heaven protect you, *Peter Vidal*, and may love direct you to a lady who is loyally attached to you.' Surprised to hear myself addressed by my own name, ' Whence comes it,' said I, ' that you know me so particularly ?' ' I have often lived in your house,' said he, to me ; ' and I have dictated almost all the verses which you have composed.' ' Ah ! come and live with me still,' answered I, with emotion : ' I intreat you to abide in my castle—never was a guest more welcome under my roof.'

" The lady then mentioned, that she preferred a retreat on the brink of a stream, or in some pleasing grove.—' Madam,' I rejoined, ' not far from my castle is a sweet recess, surrounded by a fence of reeds, and watered by a limpid stream.' With these words, I shewed them the way, and first trode on the tender grass. The meadow was painted with recent flowers ; and the orchards echoed with the music of birds. The damsel spread on the turf a carpet of marvellous texture. A thousand knights might sit on it without constraint; and yet, when it was folded up, the lady carried it in a small bag, which was tied to her girdle.

" When he had seated himself by me, the knight said, ' *Peter Vidal,* you are doubtless anxious to know me, as well as the two ladies and the squire who accompany me. Learn, then, that I am Love, that this lady's name is Mercy, that this damsel is Modesty, and that this squire is Loyalty."

After this declaration, *Peter Vidal* must excuse us if we proceed no farther with his incoherent recital. In vain *Jordi*, from the court of Arragon, essayed to surpass him in a single sonnet. *Vidal* chaunts another amorous lay, and accompanies it with the guitar.

Arnauld de Merveil then celebrates the mistress of his heart, whom he was destined never to enjoy, and whom, with all her indifference, he regards as the paragon of virtue and beauty. In the midst of his hopeless admiration, he comforts himself with the reflection that none can interfere with his precious imaginary transports.

He is succeeded by *Guilhems de St. Leidier*, *Guiraud de Borneil*, and *Perdigon;* who, in like manner, sing of the kindnesses or the cruelties of the fair damsels whom they adore. Then *Azalais de Porcaraigues*, *Donna Castelloza*, and *Clara d' Anduze*, three ladies celebrated in the art of composing verses and singing them with grace, salute the fair presidents of the Court ; and, while Clara sings, her two companions accompany her with the harp and lute. Clara's lamentation has few poetical attractions, and is exceptionable in a moral point of view ; since it

it represents the lover, and not the husband, as the sole object of her affection.—So motley are the proceedings of this *tender* and *sentimental* tribunal, that Clara has no sooner finished her pathetic complaint, than the presidents call for the jugglers and tumbling boys, who perform various feats, and thus close the first act of the exhibition.

Competitory dialogues, funeral songs, encomiastic verses, and a rhapsodical introduction to the approaching tournaments, compose the ingredients of the second part. This portion of the performance is little calculated to awaken the interest of the reader. We select the subsequent detached morsel, more on account of its brevity, than for the truth of the sentiment. The mode of expression may, perhaps, recall the sayings of the wise king: but the number of his wives and concubines is the surest proof that he was less a woman-hater than the uncourteous *Adhémar*, who breaks out into this extraordinary *triade:*

'I have seen many things which I pretended not to see. I have often smiled and frolicked with those whom I disliked. I have experienced ingratitude in serving men who were reckoned virtuous, and I have seen the most stupid and empty babblers succeed greatly beyond their deserts.

'I have seen women sacrifice the honour of their husbands to the most unprincipled galiants. I have seen miserable fribbles obtain from them favours which they refused to men of genuine merit and delicacy. I have seen many men squander their fortune, and ruin themselves for women, who laughed at them, and gave themselves to their rivals for nothing.

'I have seen women, who were solicited by men of wit, long resist their addresses, and yield at once to the first proud and nonsensical fool who came in their way. I have seen that, if some women preferred men of superior information, they were censured by others of their sex.

'I have always seen that the learned and the best instructed failed in gaining favour with the ladies; I have seen, on the contrary, that the most silly triumphed. I have seen delicacy of sentiment prove mischievous, and treachery be of great avail. I have seen that, in love, folly is always more advantageous than reason.

'I have seen ladies attach guilt to men who were innocent, and load with their favours those who had wronged them. In short, I have seen so many things contradictory to good sense, and I am so much convinced that the most cruel sufferings often proceed from the most noble desires, that my angry heart no longer inspires any strains but those which are bitter as the recollections with which it is filled.'

The third part of the poem commences with pompously announcing the knights. The several combats are then detailed; and the ladies adjudge the prizes of valour to the lord

of

of *Baux*, and to *Savaric* of *Mauléon*. Six curious love cases are next judicially reported by the official judge to the sovereign and her assessors, by way of appeal. We quote an example:

'This sentence was hardly pronounced, when a young lady rises with impatience, and, without waiting for the judge's statement of her alleged grievances, speaks thus:

"Most gracious sovereign, and you, fair presidents, you, doubtless, agree with me in thinking that violence and force should be banished from the empire of love, in which gentleness and courtesy delight to reign; and you will not allow the offence, of which I complain, to pass unpunished. But what punishment sufficiently severe can you inflict on him, who, forgetting the respectful attentions which he owes to his lady, clasps her in his arms at a moment when she least expects it, and, in spite of all her efforts to turn away her lips, forcibly carries off a kiss? Is such a lover worthy of the name? Should he not rather be condemned to perpetual ignorance of the sweets of kisses granted, that he may know only the bitterness of those which are extorted?"

'At these words, the young lady visibly betrayed in her looks and gestures the resentment which reigned in her heart.

'The accused lover having, in his turn, advanced to the tribunal, replied in a more moderate tone, that he pleaded guilty to the theft: but that he only acted as every body in his situation would have done.

"For more than a year," said he, "this kiss was promised to me, as a just recompence for my sincere love, and my plighted faith; and, during this long interval, I have not ceased to ask it on my knees; but the favour was always eluded on the most frivolous pretexts. One day, it is true, I could not repress the impatience excited by so many refusals, and I took by force what I could not obtain by gentle means. I acknowlege my fault, and the justice of consequent punishment. Yet the Court should decide on principles of equity: and if it condemns me for stealing a kiss which did not belong to me, it ought to enforce the fair and open restitution of that which is my lawful property."

'The lady, rendered furious by this unexpected inference, pretended at first that she had made no such promise; but, when compelled to confess the contrary, she alleged that it was conditional. "I reserved to myself," said she, "the time of fulfilling it. The offence is therefore obvious. A simple and absolute promise always implies delay before execution; and it is the duty of a lover to wait."

"According to this mode of reasoning," answered the lover, "the ladies would always have justice on their side, and the term of their refusal would be indefinite. Besides, can it be denied that, independently of any promise whatsoever, a whole year of service and attention well deserves a kiss? and that, since this price was obstinately refused to me, I was justified in having recourse to violence, and taking my own where I found it?"

'His mistress was preparing a rejoinder: but the Court, conceiving that the case was sufficiently clear, called on the vice-judge to

to declare his sentence, which was passed in these terms: "The lady having, by her long refusal, abused the patience of her lover, has provoked his temerity; and, as she objects to the validity of the stolen kiss, and even confesses that she averted her lips, she is not absolved from her promise. She is, therefore, condemned to give to her amiable friend a kiss with a good grace."

With regard to the 'Amorous Epistles,' which are supposed to pass between Sappho and Phaon, we may venture to assert, notwithstanding the Occitanic version on the opposite page, that they are of a more recent manufacture than the poems of the Troubadours. Their composition frequently bespeaks ability and feeling, though the latter be occasionally marred by a quaint or cold conceit. We may allow a desperate and forsaken lover to declare that her 'heart is devoured by flames:' but it rather belongs to the rhetorician to add, that 'it presents less resistance to the conflagration than the dry standing corn, the burning of which is cherished by the impetuous winds.' The very next sentence is equally liable to criticism. 'You are delighted with those scorching climates which Etna covers with waving flames—Alas! a more terrible volcano is kindled in my bosom.'—The following panegyric is at once too *fine* and too *bombastical*. 'Is there a woman of feeling, be she mortal or a goddess, whose pride Phaon would not subdue? For him Aurora, a morning lover, would change the dew with which she covers the flowers, into tears of love; for him Phœbe, proclaiming her desires with her radiance, would interrupt by her sighs the silence of the night; for him even Venus would quit the eternal threshold, where brilliant azure mingles with the golden stars.' Phaon, in his answer, mentions the God of the *Troubadours* inviting his beloved *Daphne*, &c. We may, however, remark that, chilled as he is by the curse of Venus, he writes in a more artless style than his fair admirer, who is represented as the despairing victim of a consuming passion; and his letter is not destitute of the forcible expressions of ardent emotion.

'Torn with remorse, I blush for my ingratitude. Far from the haunts of men, I go in quest of some savage district, inaccessible to the wrath of the Gods. Roaming in deep forests, or over arid mountains, I go to deplore my crime, and to vent my fury.'—

'Alas! how repair my offence? In what darksome caverns conceal myself? O Gods! hear my cries. Restore to my forehead its wrinkles and grey hairs, and take back this fatal beauty, this terrible gift, which my soul abhors.'—

'O Sappho, if you wish to see Phaon, forget the rock of Leucadia; and go, daughter of Apollo, heiress of his harmonious lyre, appease the fatal wrath of Venus. Venus alone can put a period to your torments, and dry up the tears in which your eyes are drowned.

Can

Can she possibly resist the prayers of Sappho? Go, repeat to her those soothing strains which pleased her in happier days; burn incense on her flower-bedecked altar, until the Goddess forsake Olympus, and appear before you, sailing on a fragrant cloud. Then, Sappho, plead my cause—bathe the feet of the Goddess with your tears—shrink not from the task—wait till her heart relent—till she say to you, with an enchanting smile, Sappho, grieve no more—I give you Phaon, and allow him to retain the beauty which enchanted you—I give you both leave to be happy, and I forget his crime.'—

'Then, more rapid than her favourite dove, I will fly to your embrace, again to taste of pleasure, again to call you mine. Gentle Hymen, the brother of Love, will wave over us his nuptial torch. The tenor of our gold and silken days will acquire serenity as it rolls along. Venus will accept of my vows. Prostrate at her altars, intoxicated with pleasure, I will swear inviolate love to Sappho, and reverence to the Goddess. Faithful to the last sigh, I vow to share between them the desires and the wishes of my heart.'

Sappho flatters herself that she approached not the temple in vain, that her hymns and her prayers had propitiated the incensed divinity, and that Phaon was again destined to her arms. Full of these ravishing ideas, 'at length,' says she, 'I touch the confines of felicity. Since you still can love me, we need fear no obstacles to our bliss. Heavens! what torrents of pleasure open on my hopes! O time! flap thy heavy wings, and fly—hasten the happy instant which is destined to reunite me to my lover.'—

Before, however, she concludes her second letter, in which she paints with warmth the return of departed joys, and traces the progress of her eventful passion, she expresses an insinuation that she may have trusted to a treacherous Deity; 'and now, Phaon, the whole of this relation is, perhaps, only the phantom of a dream: but doubly wretched I, if ever I wake from the delusion. If, betrayed by Venus, I am destined to finish my career in solitude, and far from you, expect not to find me feeble or irresolute. Death and the Leucadian rock await me.'

The author of these epistles has obviously borrowed much from Ovid: but he has seldom copied with servility. In some instances, he has considerably improved on his original; though in others he has been less fortunate.

The poem intitled '*the Seasons*,' which follows next in course, can add little to the merit of the collection. It consists of four short cantos, one being allotted to each season. In the first, the shepherds are invited to quit their cottages, to listen to the music of the groves, and to erect the may-pole, while Spring is requested to soften the rigours of the beautiful *Elyz*. In the second, the sun involves in his scorching beams the starry wil-

derness, and the tribes of animated nature languish in the shade. The coolness of evening induces the birds to resume their song, and the coy shepherdess to bathe in the stream. In the third, the good country-folks are invited to make wine and oil, and to dry chesnuts. In the fourth, we have a laudable allowance of ice, fogs, and storms. The shepherd slides on the river, and laughs, with the greatest good-nature, when a snow-ball pelts him on the cheek. A fire of vine-twigs, the juice of the grape, and roasted chesnuts, are celebrated as no trivial sources of consolation; yet the stern season is earnestly requested to expend all its severity at once, as the 'poet's fingers are absolutely stiff with cold.'

Of the remaining trifling effusions, we can say little that is commendable. We must only beg leave to remark that '*the Rising of Anna*,' though sketched with apparent delicacy, may wound the modesty of female readers.

The vocabulary of occitanic terms, which is annexed to this volume, does not precisely correspond to its title: but it may form an useful supplement to collections of a similar description.

On the whole, M. D'OLIVET has contrived to present us with an agreeable and entertaining miscellany, of a very peculiar complexion.

Muir.

ART. V. *Mémoire Aptérologique*, &c.; *i. e.* An Apterological Memoir. By JOHN FREDERICK HERMANN, M.D. Member of the Society of Natural History of Paris; published by *Frederick Louis Hammer*, Professor of Natural History in the School of Pharmacy at Strasburg, &c. With nine coloured Plates. Folio. pp. 150. Strasburg. 1804. Imported by De Boffe. Price two Guineas sewed.

THE writer of this memoir obtained, about thirteen years ago, the prize which the Linnéan Society of Paris proposed to grant to the author who should make the greatest number of discoveries in Natural History. So far, however, from indulging in the security of success, the young HERMANN subjected his essay to repeated revision, and enriched it with several valuable additions. He even intended to have new-modelled it entirely, when, in the twenty-fifth year of his age, he fell a victim to an infectious distemper, which he caught in the course of his professional attendance at a military hospital. His father, (whose Zoological Observations were lately published,) with the view of preparing the work for the press, added some new discoveries, and began the engraving of the first plates: but he, too, being suddenly carried off, the task of

editing this elaborate production devolved on his son-in-law, Professor *Hammer*. From him we learn that the father and son had collected and designed more than one hundred species of spiders, and a great number of pediculi and gall-insects. To forward these preparations, however, and to execute their history in the splendid style which the father had proposed, would be a work of very considerable expence and labour!

The comparative neglect, to which the apterous class of insects has been condemned, arises chiefly from the nature of the subject. Accordingly, in his Introduction, Dr. H. very pertinently remarks that the greater ease with which individuals of the other classes are found and preserved, and also with which they are examined, described, and designed, has preferably invited the attention of naturalists. The apterous families, on the contrary, often escape the eye; many of them inhabit mosses, which are collected at a season very unfavourable to the search of insects; others live in company with infusorial animalcules, or on other animals; or spring from the hand which is just ready to grasp them; or excite aversion by real or fancied venomous qualities; or dwell in corrupted masses of vegetable or animal matter. To the difficulties of discovering, we may add those of fixing and preserving the more minute species, which are very numerous; and these the entomologist must examine, while they are yet in life, and immediately after they are taken.

'This examination cannot be conducted with success, except under circumstances which do not often concur, and cannot be conducted at all without considerable trouble. How many particulars, too, are requisite, to ensure success!—A habit of observation acquired by long practice, suitable leisure, rigorous attention, persevering mental exertion, and inexhaustible patience. We must be able to manage the microscope with the utmost delicacy, so as not to crush creatures of such a tender consistency, creatures not easily distinguished, and often almost invisible. We must examine them under different points of view, in various situations, and at different intervals; we must, without deranging or mutilating them, display the parts of the mouth, which are concealed by one another; at the same time, we must be correct designers, and able to trace with fidelity whatever may be discovered.'

According to our author, *De Geer* is the only entomological writer who has comprehended the whole family of apterous insects, and delineated their history by figures; his seventh volume being still the most complete performance of the kind. Among the monographers, *Muller* is by far the most accurate and satisfactory. Much, however, is yet wanting to ascertain the nature and history of many of the genera; and, had Dr. Hermann

Hermann lived, we should have considered this first memoir as a flattering pledge of a systematic and detailed view of the whole class.

'Accustomed,' says he, 'from early youth, to microscopical observations, directed by my father, a veteran observer, and encouraged by the wishes of a *Pallas*, I thought that I could not better try my strength, than by confining my entomological researches chiefly to the apterous families.

'When I have multiplied my observations, provided that I am not anticipated by others, I shall endeavour to fill up the chasms in apterology by a series of monographies, and shall labour to render them as perfect as possible, by studying to imitate the models of *Muller*. In the meanwhile, the memoirs, which I present as the forerunners of these monographies, contain a portion of my observations on these insects. The mite, louse, and spider tribes, which will be first explained, are also the principal objects of these memoirs. It would have afforded me particular satisfaction to have offered similar observations on the poduræ, whose species are neither less numerous nor less common: but the extreme difficulty of treating them has not hitherto permitted me to prosecute their study with the requisite zeal.'

We have thus stated the author's arduous design, both that the reader may duly appreciate this small portion of the execution, and that persons, who aspire to tread in his footsteps, may be duly warned of the trouble and the difficulties which beset such a painful career.

The Doctor prefaces his generic andspecific descriptions with observations on mites. After having shewn that the definitions of this genus, as laid down by *Linné*, *Geoffroy*, *De Geer*, *Fabricius*, *Muller*, *Olivier*, &c. are discordant and inadequate, and that all the species cannot be included in a single genus, he adverts to the continuous union of the head, thorax, and abdomen, as the only character common to them all. Hence he assumes this peculiarity of structure as a distinct family-mark of the several genera, which form the subject of his memoir; and which he denominates *Holotres*, from the Greek ὅλος *entire* and τρῆσον, *belly*. Of the four families into which he distributes the aptera, the first is characterized by *six feet*, and *the thorax distinct from the head, or from the abdomen*. It includes *Lepisma*, *Podura*, *Phthiridium*, *Pediculus*, *Nirmus*, and *Pulex*. The second has for characters *eight feet*, and *the head, thorax, and abdomen united*. To this tribe belong *Picnogonum*, *Trombidium*, *Hydrarachna*, *Scirus*, *Cynorhæstes*, *Rhynchoprion*, *Notaspis*, *Acarus*, and *Phalangium*. The genera of the third family have *from eight to fourteen feet, head and thorax united, abdomen or tail distinct*. Their names are *Aranea*, *Rhax*, *Chelifer*, *Scorpio*, *Cancer*, *Dichelesthium*, *Monoculus*, and *Oniscus*. *Julus* and *Scolopendra*, the two genera

appertaining to the fourth family, have *many feet, and the head distinct from the thorax.*

We shall now notice, in a cursory way, the several genera, with their respective species in the order in which they are treated by M. HERMAN.

I. TROMBIDIUM. Its characters are, *two palpi, with frequently an appendage under the summit.* The Fabrician account of this genus is very imperfect, being scarcely applicable to any of the species, except the *holosericeum*, and presenting no additions to the Linnéan catalogue. Without much solicitude of search, the author discovered not fewer than thirty species. Aware, also, that the number may shortly be considerably increased, he proposes to distribute them into nine divisions, according to the disposition of the eyes, and the respective length of the feet. The species here noted are *tinctorium, holosericeum, fuliginosum, bicolor, assimile, curtipes, trigonum, pusillum, trimaculatum, murorum, miniatum, papillosum, squamatum, expalpe, longipes, macropus, quisquiliarum, phalangioides, aquaticum, parietinum, pyrrholeucum, cornigerum, bipustulatum, telarium, tibiarium, socium, celer, seminigrum, insectorum, latirostre, cornutum, aphidis, parasiticum, libellulæ, culicis*, and *lapidum.*

II. HYDRARACHNA. In his introduction to this genus, the author shews that even *Muller* has failed in his attempt to distinguish accurately between it and *Acarus.* The characters which are now assigned to it are, *two palpi, rostrum, and two sheath-like laminæ, very entire, two, four, or six eyes, feet adapted to swimming.* *Muller* mentions fifty species. Dr. HERMANN discovered about twenty-four in the neighbourhood of Strasburg, about one third of which are non-descripts. Those particularized in the memoir are, *histrionica, longipalpis, globulus, erythrophthalma, lutescens*, and *fuscata.*

III. SCIRUS. This new denomination is here applied to those mites of which *Linné* and *Geoffroy* recognized only one species, namely, *Acarus longicornis.* Its characters are, *rostrum with a bivalve vagina, broken antennæ, inserted in the lateral base of the rostrum.* The species described are, *vulgaris, longirostris, latirostris*, and *setirostris.*

IV. CYNORHÆSTES. This appellation is from the Greek κυνοραιστης (*dog-tormenter*), which occurs in Aristotle. The characters are, *rostrum serrated on both sides, covered with two laminæ, serrated outwardly at the summit, club-form antennæ, body depressed, — eyes.*—The species are, *ricinus, ægyptius, reduvius, pictus, rhinocerotis*, and *sylvaticus.* The toothed trunk of these ticks is described and figured in the twenty-third volume of the Philosophical Transactions, and in *De Geer*'s seventh volume. Yet *Goetze* claims the merit of its discovery. These authors, however,

however, considered the trunk in question as simple, whereas the present writer has ascertained that it is composed of three parts.

V. RHYNCHOPRION. From ῥυγχος, *beak*, and πρίων, *saw*. The ticks belonging to this genus have been removed from the others, on account of their real articulated antennulæ, and their want of antennæ. Their *rostrum is serrated on both sides, outwardly, toward the summit; they have two palpi, the body depressed, and — eyes.* The two species described are, *columbæ* and *Americanum*.

As we cannot accompany this ingenious naturalist through all his specific distinctions, and acute criticisms on nomenclature, without greatly trespassing on our accustomed bounds, and exhausting the patience of many of our readers, we shall be satisfied with inserting the subsequent account of *Rhynchoprion columbæ*, as not one of the least interesting passages in this learned performance.

'PIGEON'S. (COLUMBÆ.)

'RHYNCHOPRION. Abdomen of a purplish flesh colour, marginated; blood vessels branching, anastomosing; mouth inferior.

'(RHYNCHOPRION. *Abdomine carneo-violaceo, marginato; vasis sanguiferis ramosis anastomosantibus; ore infero.* Nobis.)

PLATE IV. Fig. 10, 11.

'This singular species, which is the largest of all the ticks of this country that are known to me, is found on pigeons, and often in such multitudes on the young as to occasion their death. It is very surprizing that, hitherto, nobody has mentioned it. My father has been acquainted with it these thirty years, and keeps it in his cabinet. He has always postponed publishing a description of it, as well as of many other objects.

'When it is not too full of blood, one may discern through its body, especially the hinder part of it, very large branching vessels, containing blood, which, when the body is placed in a lateral direction, is propelled into the smallest ramifications between the great canals, especially in the very attenuated margin of the body. These small passages, which, in their empty state, were scarcely visible, are now seen tinged with red, because the blood itself is there refined, and its colour can be more easily distinguished through the edge. When, on the contrary, the insect is swelled with blood, the vessels are so much extended, and, consequently pressed so close on one another, that those in the middle can no longer be distinguished; and it is then wholly of a livid hue. If it be compressed in this state, the blood entering copiously into the vessels on the edge, and enlarging them, or perhaps even rupturing them, makes the whole edge appear red and blotched.

'The body of this tick is very prettily variegated with winding furrows and indentings, both on the upper and under side. The back is very flat, or, indeed, almost concave; and, when the creature is gorged with blood, and the middle part of the disk of the back is

a little raised, the surrounding border of the belly continues elevated and very much marked. The insect, when inflated with blood, is very soft, and may be easily crushed between the fingers; which is by no means the case with the *Cynorhæstes*, and especially with the *ægyptius*, the *pictus*, and *reduvius*, whose bodies I have never found extended like that of *Cynorhæstes ricinus*. I have preserved an individual of this species alive in a glass, during eight months, without its taking the smallest quantity of food, or voiding excrements, and without the slightest perceptible diminution or decay of its body. It will be recollected, that the antients affirmed that ticks are destitute of an anus. I intend to inquire farther into this circumstance. It should seem that the blood is preserved in the ramified vessels of this insect, as it is in the pouches of the leech, and that it supplies it with food during a very long time: but what is it that prevents the corruption of the blood in these reservoirs of either creature? Whenever I am again possessed of one of these rhynchoprions, I mean to observe the most protracted term of its life; for that in question would probably be still alive, if the loss of three feet, which I cut from it, had not caused its death. I was less apprehensive of the fatal consequences of this operation, because, in several apterous insects, lost feet are, perhaps, reproduced. My father formerly preserved a spider which had one of its legs shorter than it should have been, and a dragon-fly in the same predicament, and which had, probably, lost one of its legs in the larva or nymph state, and afterward reproduced it. Experiments on reproduction should be made, multiplied, and varied on insects.

'For the rest, I have found on other young pigeons rhynchoprions of the form and size of the head of a middling pin, and of a blackish ash colour. I am uncertain whether these be the young of the *rhynchoprion columbæ* which I have just described, or whether they belong to a particular species. The different form of the body, destitute of a margin, induces me to adopt this last opinion; and the more so, because I have never found these small ticks along with the others. The observation deserves to be repeated, whenever an opportunity occurs.'

VI. Acarus. Dr. Hermann limits this genus to those species, which have usually a shining body, of a hard and horny consistency. They are distinguished by *four palpi, the intermediate straight, with claws extensible in a horizontal direction, and toes incumbent on each other*. They are found on other animals, especially on the viviparous quadrupeds, birds, and insects. Though, even thus circumscribed, the genus be very numerous, want of leisure and opportunity prevented the author from bestowing the requisite attention on many species which he had reason to believe strictly belonged to it. 'It will, no doubt, likewise excite surprize,' says he, 'to learn, that I have omitted the *acarus domesticus* and *avicularum* of *De Geer*, and several others, which are the most interesting: but they are partly difficult to be procured, and partly so minute and delicate, that

it

it is hardly possible to examine the parts of their mouth.' For these reasons, he has described only the *coleoptratorum*, *pachypus*, *marginatus*, *cadaverinus*, *crassipes*, *testudinarius*, *chelopus*, *hirundinis*, *vespertilionis*, *dimidiatus*, *spinitarsus*, *cellaris*, *favorum*, and *junci*.

VII. NOTASPIS. From the Greek νωτος, *back*, and ασπις, *shield*. This is a new designation applied to the *acari coleoptrati* of Linné and others. Its characters are, *abdomen covered with a dorsal buckler*, *palpi* —, *rostrum* —. The species are subdivided into sections, according as they have monodactylous, didactylous, or tridactylous claws. To the first belong *clavipes*, *corynopus*, and *castaneus*; to the second, *horridus*; and to the third *theleproctus*, *acromios*, *humeralis*, *alatus*, *tegeocranus*, *cassideus*, *segnis*, and *bipilis*.

VIII. PHALANGIUM. As the Linnéan characters by no means accord with all the species which have been assigned to this genus, the author limits them to the following, *four palpi*, *the intermediate with claws*, *inflected toes of the claws lateral*; *two eyes*; *rostrum* —. Of this description are the *parietinum*, *cornutum*, *cornigerum*, *melanotarsum*, *rubens*, *bimaculatum*, *uncatum*, *spinulosum*, *chrysomelas*, *rufum*, *annulatum*, and *urnigerum*.

IX. CHELIFER. The characters are *ten feet*, *the first pair clawed*, *palpi furnished with claws*, *having lateral toes*; *four eyes*; *no tail*. This species have either the thorax bisected, as *cancroides*, *nepoides*, *scorpioides*, *ascaroides*, and *parasita*; or entire, as *carcinoides* and *ischnochelus*.

X. PHTHIRIDIUM. *Head and thorax united*; *antennæ*, *none*; *two caudal inflected styles*; *six ambulatory feet*; *mouth* —, *eyes* —. The two species are *vespertilionis* and *biarticulatum*.

XI. DICHELESTHIUM. From the Greek δις *double*, χηλη, *claw*, and εσθιειν, *to eat*. *Ten feet besides the frontal claws*, *with the large toe blunted*; *antennæ*, *filiform*, *reflected*, *rostrum cylindrical*, *membranous*, *hollow*; *six unequal palpi*, *of different forms*. To this genus belongs the *sturionis*, which is here very minutely described.

The few remaining pages of the memoir contain an account of three *Monoculi*, which have been hitherto little known, viz. *limulus*, *argulus*, and *daphnia*.

Of a work avowedly posthumous, and destined to illustrate the history of minute and delicate insects, we are not intitled to complain, if, as in the present instance, many of the descriptions are slight and imperfect. It is evident that the author, at an early period of life, had directed his application to a path of inquiry which few have had patience to explore; that he prosecuted his researches with indefatigable diligence and zeal; and that time alone was wanting to have crowned

his labours with success. The fruits of his persevering industry would have experienced a still more flattering reception, had he more frequently gratified his readers with views of the habits and modes of living of these little creatures which he so painfully describes, and whose respective stations in the systematic arrangement are ascertained at such an expence of time and trouble.

The plates, which accompany this handsome work, seem to be executed with much care and precision, and delineate a great variety of species. In many instances, the insect is exhibited according to its natural and its magnified appearance,—a contrast at once striking, and highly useful to all who feel interested in this department of entomology.

Muir.

ART. VI. *M.* MEUSEL'*s Guide to the History of Literature.*

[*Article concluded from the Appendix to Vol.* xlv. *p.* 538.]

STATE of the Belles Lettres, &c.——*Poetry*, the nearer we approach to modern times, appears to have become more and more the favourite pursuit of genius in all nations. To enumerate the great names of poets, as well as writers on the art of poetry, which illustrate this period, would be superfluous and tedious. We may content ourselves with observing, in general, that, since the fifteenth century, the spirit of poetry has extended itself, not only through those countries which it animated in the times of old, but also through the whole of the south and north of Europe. Denmark, Sweden, Lapland, Poland, Russia, have all felt its influence, and have signalized themselves at sundry times, and particularly within the last century, by productions of genuine beauty and sublimity.

Eloquence has also been studied with considerable assiduity, and numerous treatises on it have appeared in most civilized countries; in Italy, by Patrizi and Corticelli:—in Spain, by Salinas, Nunez, Paton, and Majans:—in France, by Lami, Fenelon, Rapin, Rollin, and Batteux:—in Germany, by Melancthon, Voss, Ernesti, Basedow, Löbel, and Maass:—in Great Britain, by Lawson, Blair, Sheridan, Monboddo, Ward, &c. In Italy, prose may be said to have been created by Boccaccio (1375), and to have been conducted to its greatest purity and perfection by Machiavelli (1482). This pure prose, however, made but slow progress in society, and, till late in the eighteenth century, was only to be learnt from the writings of Boccaccio, Machiavelli, and the rest of the Italian classics. The two best Italian orators have been Della Casa and Speroni.——In Spain and Portugal, the best prose writers lived in the sixteenth and part of the

the seventeenth centuries; they were chiefly historians and moralists. That Spanish pulpit-eloquence is very low, we learn from Franz de Isla, himself a Spanish jesuit, in his *Historia del Fray Gerundio de Campazas*, (1758.) Of Portuguese orators, no one is much known out of his own country, excepting the jesuit Vieyra, whose works were published at Lisbon (1679—1718) in fourteen quarto volumes, of which the first thirteen consist entirely of sermons.

The history of French and English prose is too well known in this country to require notice in this place.

'German prose,' says M. MEUSEL, 'is still far from having reached the perfection of which it is capable.' He attributes this deficiency to the want of general established rules, of a common tribunal of appeal, &c., and particularly blames the style of the historical and philosophical writers. Luther introduced into his prose greater exactness, ease, and strength, than any writer either before him or for a long time after him. At his decease, it again began to decline, and continued gradually to grow worse and worse, till, in the earlier part of the eighteenth century, it was reduced to a mere motley jargon of words out of foreign languages. Whoever was then desirous of writing what might be worth reading, was compelled to have recourse either to the Latin or to the French. Thomasius was the first of the modern Germans who endeavoured to reform his native tongue: Wolf followed his steps, and gave to its expressions the precision of philosophical exactness; Mosheim added clearness, grace, and harmony; Bodmer, Breitinger, Gellert, Rabener, and others, contributed farther to its improvement, more especially by stripping it of its borrowed tinsel, and by restoring its proper native richness. This may be styled the first period in the progress of German prose. The second period may be dated from about the year 1760, when first the German writers, Lessing, Mendelssohn, &c. began to be generally acquainted with the beauties of British literature. Since that time, the number of German authors, who have distinguished themselves in every species of prosaic composition, is altogether astonishing; the particulars will be found in the account given by M. MEUSEL. The other nations of Europe, but chiefly the Danes and Swedes, have attempted, especially towards the close of the eighteenth century, to improve their prose writing: but hitherto their success has not been brilliant.

State of political Science. This subject naturally divides itself into two branches, *Government* and *Administration*; the former relating to the theory of political constitutions, the latter to the execution of the laws, and the management of the national resources.

sources. The numerous important changes, which have taken place in the principal governments of Europe within the last three centuries, have afforded the materials of the theory of government. Of these events, none have been more fruitful of political instruction than Luther's Reformation, the disturbances in France and in the Netherlands during the latter half of the sixteenth century, and, in England, the rebellion against Charles I. and the Revolution in 1688. The principal writers on this highly interesting science, mentioned by M. MEUSEL, are Machiavelli, Botero, Bodinus, Languet, (in his *Vindiciæ contra Tyrannos*, 1581,) Boucher, Raynald, Mariana, Grotius, Hobbes, Milton, Salmasius, Algernon Sidney, Locke, Bolingbroke, Lipsius, Montesquieu, Rousseau, and the Abbé Raynal. The *Management of the National Resources*, including political œconomy, the promotion of the arts and manufactures, &c. was never scientifically treated before the latter part of this period. A knowlege of the subject, particularly of the financial branch of it, had been hitherto considered, both in theory and in practice, as a state secret; indeed it was a very generally received prejudice that such knowlege was to be obtained solely from practice, and theory was of course in a great measure neglected. The political systems of Sully and Colbert are very deficient on this score; more especially as they are built on that principle which Adam Smith has now so satisfactorily proved to be false, that the wealth of a nation is to be estimated by its *pecuniary* capital. Towards the middle of the eighteenth century, under the protection of Frederic William I., king of Prussia, public lectures on this science were delivered in the University of Halle by S. P. Gasser, and in that of Frankfurt, by J. C. Dithmar; and the example was followed at Rinteln, Brunswic, Vienna, &c. The authors most distinguished on the *Money System* were Zincke, Gottlob von Justi, Schreber, Bielefeld, Beausobre, Berguis, and Daries. About this time, however, a second system came very much into vogue, called the system of *Physiocracy;* according to which the strength and prosperity of a nation are to be estimated by the amount of its *natural produce*. The principal supporters of it have been, in France, Mercier de la Riviere, Mirabeau, Dupont, Condillac, Le Trosne, and Turgot:—in Switzerland, Iselin:—in Germany, Schlettwein, Springer, Mauvillon, Schmalz, &c. On the other hand, the absurdity of regarding husbandmen and builders as the only productive classes of society, and of rejecting all consideration of those arts and manufactures which, in return for ornamental labour, introduce into a country the wealth and produce of foreign lands, has been abundantly shewn by Linguet, Necker, Schlosser,

ser, Dohm, Pfeiffer, Count Brühl, Büsch, Arthur Young, Count Veri, &c. At length Adam Smith, in his much-read and much-admired work on the "Wealth of Nations," (first printed in the years 1775—6,) laid the foundation of a third system, which has been ever since continually gaining ground. He does not, like the Physiocrats, confine the national capital to its *natural* produce, but extends it to the collective amount of every thing which the industry of man can render profitable; and his leading principle is, that the productive labour of the inhabitants, the grand source of the strength and wealth of a nation, is best promoted by their freedom from oppression, and from every kind of clog and restraint on their trade, commerce, and agriculture. On this subject we may consult with advantage the writings of Stewart, Genovesi, Sonnenfels, Jung, Walther, Voss, and Bensen.

The various departments of political science have, for the most part, been separately treated with great ability within this period: *Legislation*, by Montesquieu, Voltaire, Iselin, Filangieri, Beccaria, and others:—the *Regulations of the Police*, by De la Maze, Justi, Pfeiffer, Sonnenfels, and Des Essarts;—and that part of it, in particular, which regards the health of the inhabitants, by Frank. The principal writers on *Finance* are Justi, Pfeiffer, Rössig, and Borowsky.

Husbandry and the *mechanical Arts* have been much promoted by the vast discoveries made in experimental chemistry and in mathematics. The art of engraving on copper has greatly contributed to the same end, by supplying the means of making public the descriptions of machines and instruments, as well as the modes of working them. As the earliest writers of note on these subjects, M. Meusel mentions Coler, Hohberg, and Marperger, of the seventeenth century; for fuller information he refers us to the works of Justi, Zincke, Münchausen, Du Hamel, Schubart, Beckmann, Sprengel, Lamprecht, Jung, and Walther, and the dictionaries of Jacobson and Krünitz. On *Trade*, we may consult the two Savary des Brualons (father and son), Ludovici, May, Reimar, Beckmann, Büsch, and Berghaus.

State of Physical Science. This subject divides itself into Natural History, Natural Philosophy or Physics, and Chemistry. Natural History in general derived considerable advantage in the beginning of this period, though rather in the way of minute individual descriptions than of any scientific classification, from the labours of Gessner and Aldrovandi. In classification, Ray may be said to have set the first example; —about half a century later the great Linné appeared, and infinitely eclipsed all the writers on the subject who had ever preceded

preceded him, giving to it that scientific form and arrangement which it still bears. He was, however, vigorously opposed, particularly on the score of his classification of animals, by Klein; who attempted in vain to substitute another system, more conformable to the principle of Ray, but much too complex for ordinary use. It were needless for us to follow M. Meusel through his detail of the progressive improvements introduced into this science, in the various subdivisions of the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdoms: but we may refer our readers to his book, with full assurance that it will reward them for their trouble.

The History of *Natural Philosophy*, from its connection with that of Mathematical Science, has already in part been anticipated in this work. The persons of greatest celebrity who have treated of it are Galileo, Des Cartes, and Newton; and the system of Des Cartes has been ably illustrated by Silvain Regis, Van Roy, Rohault, Le Grand, Clauberg, and Sturm. Among the multitudinous defenders of the Newtonian system, we particularly notice Pemberton, Keil, s'Gravesande, Maclaurin, Desaguliers, Muschenbroeck, Algarotti, Voltaire, &c. In modern days, the controversy between Le Sage and Kant, the former an advocate for the *atomic*, the latter for the *dynamic*, system, has attracted considerable notice. They join issue at once on the primary notion of matter. Le Sage contends that matter fills space by its actual substance, that it is infinitely divisible, that there are vacuities between its constituent atoms, and that elastic fluids are composed of separate particles. Kant, on the other hand, argues that the essence of matter consists in attractive and repulsive force, and that by means of this inherent power it occupies space; that it is not infinitely divisible, that it fills space *continuately*, and that there is no vacuum, nor any fluid compounded of *discrete* particles. The principal scholars of Le Sage are De Luc and Prevost; of Kant, Weber, Eschenmayer, and Schelling. Various particulars respecting the individual branches of Natural Philosophy occur in this volume, which we cannot enumerate; and we must also pass over the subject of Chemistry, both because it would involve us in too much minuteness of detail, and because the material parts of its history may be collected from the introductions to any of the more modern chemical treatises.

State of Medicinal Science. The general spirit of inquiry, which had been excited towards the end of the preceding period, was very beneficial to the science of medicine. Yet, so bigotted was the medical world to the doctrines of Galen and his Arabian followers, that the science could make but feeble progress until Lunigo (or Leonicenus), early in the sixteenth century,

century, dared to bid defiance to prejudice, and became the restorer of the Hippocratian System. He was ably abetted in England by Linacer, and in France by Fernel.—About the year 1619, Harvey first made public his discoveries respecting the circulation of the blood.—The absurdities of Paracelsus, and of the Theosophi and Alchemists, which had been introduced into the science of medicine in the sixteenth century, continued till late in the seventeenth to lead away the medical world in pursuit of the Panacæa. Sennert was among the first who selected with judgment, from the chemistry of his day, whatever might be really useful to the physician; he first established a school of rational chemistry, and published a compendium of the Ars Medica, which long continued to be generally used. About the same time, the Cartesian Philosophy insinuated itself into the science of medicine. Regius, one of its early votaries, was the founder of the Mechanic System, which proposed to explain all the disorders of the human body on principles of mechanism. This innovation was violently reprobated by the advocates for what was called the *Methodic* System, which was built on the doctrines of Hippocrates and Galen. Sylvius (1672) undertook to account for every disorder from the fermentation of the animal acids and alkalis; and he had a numerous band of admirers. In the next century, the Mechanic Theory received strong support from Hoffmann and Hales: but it was again strenuously attacked by Stahl, the inventor of the *Organic* Theory, who referred the diseases of the human frame, not to the emotions of the body, but to those of the mind or soul. Nearly at the same time Boerhaave came forwards with a third system, distinct from any of the foregoing, though somewhat inclining to the Mechanical hypothesis. Among the great discoveries in this science during the eighteenth century, we must not omit to mention Haller's celebrated principle of *Incitability*, so ably illustrated by Brown; according to whom all the disorders of the human frame are reducible to two classes, *sthenic*, which proceed from too much, and *asthenic*, which proceed from too little, irritability.

The remainder of this chapter, including the History of Anatomy, Physiology, &c. will be read with satisfaction by professional men. It concludes with an interesting account of what M. Meusel styles *state medicine*, comprising *judicial medicine* and *medical police*; the former relating to the judicial examination of evidence in cases of premature death; the latter, to such civil regulations as regard the public health. Judicial medicine took its rise in Germany on the occasion of Charles V. promulgating his well-known criminal code, still generally prevalent in Germany. To the subject of medical

police,

police, belong hospitals, lazarettoes, boards of health, medical colleges, veterinary institutions, &c.

State of Jurisprudence. In the beginning of this period, much diligence was exhibited by Gregorius, Lagus, Vigelius, and others, in classifying the various operations of this science, and in giving to the laws a more regular and convenient arrangement: such writers were called *Methodici* and *Reconcinnatores.* The *Roman* law had derived little of taste or elegance from the labours of the Glossatores. Alciat, professor at Pavia 1550, stands at the head of those who first proposed to combine it with polite literature. In this pursuit, he met with very obstinate resistance from the disciples of Bartolus and Baldus: but the design was afterward successfully forwarded by Hoffman, Zasius, and others; and more particularly by Cujas or Cujacius, Professor at Bourges 1590, who acquired so much celebrity that the followers of this method went by the title of the Cujacian School. The number of eminent civilians in this period forms a very copious list, in which the French appear to stand foremost, and next to them the Netherlanders. Meanwhile, the *feudal law* in its several departments was studiously investigated, purified by degrees from whatever was most oppressive to the subject, and gradually melted down, in various forms, into the constitutions of the different states of Europe. The *Penal Laws* also began in most countries to assume a milder character.—By Luther's reformation, the *rights of the church* underwent a very essential change, but still not such as totally to overthrow the *Romish Canon Law:* the papists, however, were necessitated to exert themselves in establishing, on better grounds, its pretensions to supremacy; and the whole code was diligently revised. No additions were made to the Corpus Canonici Juris; and even the 7th book of *Decretalia,* collected by order of Gregory XIII., was never allowed to be of judicial authority.

During the 18th century, the *Theory of Legislation* has been studied with unparallelled assiduity and success; and, as it has engaged the attention of men of the brightest genius, so also in most countries it has had a very beneficial influence in the removal of abuses, and in the general melioration of the laws. Lists of authors under these respective heads are given by M. Meusel.

State of Theology. The study of the bible, and the expounding of its doctrines, had hitherto been so sadly neglected, that many old and respectable divines, even so late as the beginning of this period, had still to learn the contents of the New Testament: but now the art of printing, and the revived taste for literature, had introduced a more active spirit of investigation, highly

highly favourable to the right understanding of the scriptures. The publication of the Complutensian polyglott, the critical labours of Reuchlin, Erasmus, and others,—and, more than all, Luther's translation of the entire bible,—excited a zeal for the study of the sacred writings, which neither the anathemas of the church nor the coercive powers of the laws were able to suppress. Though the thoughts of the generality of Theologians were still immoderately occupied by polemic divinity, yet editions of the bible were continually multiplied, and by degrees the original text of the Old and New Testament became not less studied than the classical writings of Greece and Rome. *Dogmatic* divinity kept pace with the increasing knowlege of the scriptures: Melancthon, so early as 1521, published his *Loci Communes Theologici;* and the practice soon grew very general. *Morality*, for its intimate connection with this subject, was thus much more extensively inculcated; and we may safely affirm that, from the few dogmatical works of Melancthon, Luther, Weller, the two Riviers, &c. more sound moral instruction may be collected than from all the systems united of the antient philosophers. Yet still, as a regular science, moral philosophy was on the whole but little understood before the 17th century, when Calixtus first separated it from dogmatic divinity, and treated of it distinctly by itself. This important work, which Calixtus did not live to perfect, was carried on by his scholars with no small success; and, doubtless, their success would have been much more rapid, had they not unfortunately chosen to dress up their new science in the stiff drapery of scholastic argumentation. The later moralists have adopted a more natural and more pleasing method; the pattern of which was given by Baumgarten and Mosheim.—On *Pastoral* and *Catechetical* theology, M. MEUSEL mentions various writers, all of them Germans. It is indeed, natural to conceive that, on every literary subject, he must be best acquainted with those authors who are his countrymen; and foreigners, therefore, of whatever nation, should not be surprized at finding in this list of names, or in any of the preceding, numerous omissions which their own partial knowlege might have enabled them respectively to supply.

The concluding chapter, furnished to M. MEUSEL by his friend Professor *Ortloff*, gives a history of the Encylopædia, beginning with Chambers's Dictionary: but this subject is too recent to require an abstract.

Thus have we finished our sketch of the contents of this very useful work, which we cannot too strongly recommend to the attention of such of our readers as are conversant in the German language. An English translation of it, judiciously

interspersed with such additions as a more minute acquaintance with the literature of this country would suggest, could not but be highly acceptable to the public.

But.

ART. VII. *Lycée, ou Cours de Litterature,* &c.; *i. e.* The Lyceum, or a Course of Literature, Antient and Modern: *the Philosophy of the Eighteenth Century.* By J. F. LA HARPE. Vols. XV. and XVI. The latter consisting of two Parts. 8vo. Paris. 1804. Imported by De Boffe, Price 7s. each Volume.

MORE last words! In the present instance, they come to us not unwelcome. Though M. LA HARPE be not a writer of the first class, and rarely demands unqualified praise, few books are taken up with more pleasure than those which bear his name. If we meet with numerous passages that are weak and desultory, and if he be occasionally tedious and verbose, his pages nevertheless abound with important observations and curious facts; indeed, his acquaintance with men of letters, and with literary history, gives him a great advantage with regard to most of the matters treated in the present series of volumes. The subjects which occur in the part of the work now before us, having been foreign from his pursuits, may be expected to be those in which he would least succeed: yet there are not many readers who will not derive much instruction from an attendance on him in his present path; for it cannot be denied that he traces ably and faithfully the rise and progress of what has been called the French Philosophy, that he has exposed many of its extravagances, detailed the unworthy arts by which it was propagated, and shewn in a masterly manner its connection with the late subversions in the country in which it was cherished. We must add, however, that in animadverting on some of its heads, he betrays a want of that knowlege and discrimination, which are requisite to appreciate it properly, and to distinguish between its sound and its rotten parts.

This philosophy, it may be observed, is erroneously termed French; it has only been naturalized in France; where, it must be owned, it has certainly found a genial soil, in which it has flourished in unchecked luxuriancy: but to England belong the honour and the disgrace of its original extraction. If we strip the most celebrated of its writers, of their numerous obligations to the writings of Hobbes, Locke, Collins, Hume, and Hartley, scarcely any one of the fundamental principles on which they ground their theories will remain. A history of discoveries in this branch, and another in that of philosophical chemistry, are great desiderata; and they are

debts due from Britons who are capable of executing such undertakings, to literature, and to their country.

Alluding chiefly to their own kingdom, the French termed the age preceding their revolution, *the age of philosophy:* but the present author properly rebukes this arrogant spirit, and very justly observes that it is for posterity, not for cotemporaries, to determine what epithet shall distinguish given epochs. It was a subsequent generation that proclaimed the glories of the several ages of Pericles, Augustus, Leo. X. and Louis XIV.

Without indicating much knowlege of the subject, M. La Harpe bestows high praise on the succession of able advocates who have appeared in England on the side of revelation. Their arguments in support of our common christianity have been, he says, as conclusive and triumphant as those of *Bossuet* in favour of the unity of the church. He is also pleased to say that our heresy is less our fault than that of our ancestors; and to regard our services against the common enemy as auguring our return to the bosom of the church. We cannot help devoutly hoping that his well intended and benevolent presages may never be realized; and we must take leave to observe that, if our clergy have not been more successful in proving the divine origin of our faith, than the Bishop of *Méaux* in establishing the exclusive christian charter of the Latin church, we conceive that he has greatly over-rated their deserts. We do not wish to depreciate them, for we esteem most highly their invaluable and unrivalled labours: but we are desirous to repel a comparison which is at once illiberal and injurious.

The author exhibits the philosophy of the past century to his readers, by giving sketches of the character and works of the individuals and societies who promoted or influenced its progress. He does not deny (though he willingly would) that the eminent writers of the early part of that period were sceptical: but, as he truly remarks, they treated religion with decency, and even with reverence, while they appeared to be and probably were impressed with its beneficial effects on the welfare of individuals and the public. It was reserved for the school of *Voltaire* to hold it up as the pest of society, and to exert their utmost efforts to effect its destruction. We here see exhibited to our notice two classes of philosophers, the earlier and later disciples of the sceptical school; the first professing a respect for religion, and regarding its influence in society as salutary; the last deeming it the curse of mankind, and manifesting on all occasions the most implacable enmity against it. Among the former, he reckons *Fontenelle, Montesquieu, Buffon, Condillac, Duclos,* &c. and at the head of the latter, *Voltaire, Helvetius, Diderot, D'Alembert, Condorcet,* &c.

Considering that the author affects not the enlightened christian, but the Romish devotee, it must be confessed that he treats his subject in a temperate and dispassionate manner. The regenerate philosopher is more a disciple of *Fenelon* than of *Bossuet;* and he is candid, ingenuous, and tolerant. The progress of French infidelity is, for the most part, fairly and faithfully traced; in a manner that forms a complete contrast to the fictitious narratives of *Barruel*, which for a time in this country obtained disgraceful countenance and credit.

M. La Harpe commences his account with *Fontenelle*; who, he observes, belongs to two ages, the last and the preceding. He is unwilling to abandon this writer to the sceptics: but the sayings and acts of the literary patriarch, which he produces, tend to prove the opposite of the thesis which he labours. His criticism on the works of sentiment, which issued from the pen of *Fontenelle*, has all the justness that belongs to his judgments on matters of the same nature. The subsequent passage elucidates the character for intrigue, which has at all times distinguished the French literati:

'*Fontenelle* was the nephew of *Corneille*. He came to Paris in 1679, at the time when an inveterate cabal was using all its power to degrade and harass *Racine;* who on his side reckoned many partizans, at the head of whom was *Boileau*. These quarrels had been carried to great lengths, and had caused in 1677 an open rupture, on account of the disgraceful and temporary triumph of the *Phedra* of *Pradon;* and though the true *Phedra* soon recovered its place, *Racine*, hurt to the quick, regarded the event as a warning from heaven to quit the drama, and solemnly renounced it for ever. The men of taste doubtless grieved, but the cabals loudly rejoiced, and only wished to substitute on the stage some person in the room of *Racine*, in order to render the public, which so readily forgets the past and accommodates itself to the present, insensible to his loss. It may easily be conjectured with what cordiality this party would espouse the nephew of the great *Corneille;* a young man whose rising reputation had already travelled from Rouen to Paris by means of the journals, in which his first poetical essays had received much praise. *Fontenelle*, with his *Aspar* (a tragedy) in his hand, was for a moment the hope and the hero of the cabal, who emphatically announced him as the successor of his uncle: but this flattery, which he did not properly repel, was soon converted into humiliation by the total failure of Aspar. *Racine*, who had been threatened with a rival, could not deny himself the gratification of throwing off an epigram and a song, which had more success than the drama. *Fontenelle*, in spite of the philosophical moderation on which he piqued himself throughout life, but which at this time was not sufficiently fortified against the inroads of self love, avenged himself with the same arms, and aimed epigrams at *Esther and Athaliah* which did not succeed better than *Aspar*. This was not all. Soon after this time, the controversy concerning the antients and moderns took place, and divided

vided literature and the academy; *Fontenelle* appeared against the antients; and hence arose an animosity which never subsided. *Racine* and *Despreaux* never ceased to oppose the admission of *Fontenelle* into the academy, where he was not received till he had been four times rejected; and *Fontenelle*, whose words were recollected, was constantly saying that *Boileau* was a devotee and a knave, and that *Racine* was more a devotee and more a knave than *Boileau*. All these ill turns arose from malice and pique: but literary hatred, from the epoch of the couplets of *Rousseau* to the pamphlets of *Voltaire*, has risen to such a height as to make us almost regret the contests of the last age.

'After the death of *Racine* and his friend, the successful labours of *Fontenelle*, as secretary to the Academy of Sciences,—his judgment in confining himself solely to that province,—the celebrity which he gained for it by his pleasing memoirs, and his still more charming eulogiums,—the consideration which his places and his years attracted towards him,—the protection of the Regent, who lodged him in the Palais-Royal,—the friendship of powerful men, and the homage of society, where he knew how to please as well as in his writings,—all concurred to make him a different man, and to raise him in public estimation; and he who formerly had been only an agreeable writer, not exceeding mediocrity, became, as Voltaire observed in 1752, the *first among the learned who were not blessed with the gift of invention*, by the instructive and attractive manner in which he related the labours of others.'

It is well known that this high and neat compliment gave great offence to the literary veteran, and was never forgiven by him.

The philosophers of the second school of the last century, or the sophists, as the author denominates them, place *Fontenelle* at the head of their party. M. La Harpe, in his refutation of the claim, is easily able to shew that he treated religion with respect, and that he had nothing of the zeal and violence of modern infidelity: but, though he is desirous to have him considered as a believer, the facts which he adduces lead to an opposite conclusion. He certainly, however, was an utter stranger to the monstrous tenet that religion is mischievous in society, and ought to be extirpated from among mankind; a tenet every where contradicted in the earlier works even of *Voltaire*, and which he did not adopt till late in life, though he afterward became most anxious to disseminate it. *Fontenelle*, says our author, loudly blamed the levity and indecency of making free with religion in conversation; and he stated, as a reason for his censure, that it is against the rules of good breeding to speak with contempt of that which may be held sacred by some of the company. This, we apprehend, is more in the manner of a cautious and polite unbeliever, or sceptic, than in that of a decided christian; and of the same kind was

another of his observations, which he often repeated, "Though I had my hand full of truths, I would not open it." He was also wont to say that "christianity was the only religion which had proofs:" but he is not recorded to have added, that they were conclusive or satisfactory. There is moreover a story of a person in a state of doubt consulting him about religion, to whom he gave for answer, *lisez la bible** ; and the same person coming to him again, and telling him that the perusal of the bible had made him an unbeliever, he is stated to have replied, "*Vous voyez bien que j'avois raison de vous conseiller de lire la bible*†." This anecdote is asserted by M. La Harpe to be untrue.

Montesquieu is introduced as the second personage in this first mentioned school of the last century. Though that philosopher has panegyrized christianity, and there can be no doubt that he regarded it as highly beneficial to society, he has thrown out hints which scarcely leave any room for uncertainty respecting the bias of his mind on the subject of its divine original. M. La Harpe is to be reckoned among the warmest admirers of the estimable President; and the observations on his writings, and on the best method of studying them, constitute some of the most valuable passages of these volumes. He regards the *Considerations sur la Grandeur & la Decadence des Romains* as forming a part of the *Esprit des Lois;* and it was, he supposes, made separate, because it would have occupied a disproportionate space in his great work. Speaking of the same treatise, he thus proceeds:

'It is without a model in our language, and will last as long as the language itself. This *chef d'œuvre* of reasoning and of style leaves far behind *Machiavelli, Gordon, St. Real, Amelot de la Houssaie,* and all the other political writers who have treated of the same objects. Never was comprized within so small a compass such a mass of profound thoughts and of enlightened views. The conciseness introduced into our language by *La Rochefoucalt* and *la Bruyere* ought to yield to that of *Montesquieu*,, on account of the superior difficulty of his subject; they only clothed in pointed language ideas that existed in every mind; *Montesquieu* conferred precision on great discussions, which are beyond the capacity of most men, and on which, at the same time, he diffused a new light. He discovered, in the history of a people who had fixed the attention of the whole world, what had never been seen in it before; and he gave us views of the policy and government of the Romans, which had never been perceived by any one of their historians. The Roman annalist, between whom and *Montesquieu* the most resemblance exists, and whom he seems to have made his model in his manner of writing, viz. Tacitus, and who like him was a great thinker and a great painter, has left

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* "*Read the Bible.*"

† "*You see that I had good reason for advising you to read the Bible.*"

us an exquisite treatise on the manners of the Germans: but what a difference between the portrait of tribes half savage, traced with the design of forming an eulogium on the barbarians, and a satire on corrupt civilization,—and that immense picture of twenty ages, from the foundation of Rome to the fall of Constantinople, included within a narrow frame;—in which, notwithstanding a reduced size, the objects lose nothing of their grandeur, but appear on that very account more bold and striking! What can, in this line, be compared to a small number of pages, in which are infused and concentrated the vital spirit that animated and supported the colossus of the Roman power; and at the same time those deadly poisons which, after having long sapped its strength, occasioned it to crumble under the blows of so many nations united against it! This work is an *unique;* possessing so much substance in such small dimensions, and where philosophy is so happily blended with politics: from the one, the author has taken accurate general ideas, which he has correctly applied to the other; and these are two very distinct provinces, which, when not united, have often produced either legislators who were no philosophers, or philosophers who were no legislators. Here, as in the *Esprit des Lois*, *Montesquieu* has combined elevation of views with brief expressions; he discovers, and points out to others, numerous consequences as arising out of one principle; and the reader, who is capable of properly reflecting on these matters, may derive more information from this single volume, than from all those which have proceeded from the pens of antients or moderns on the subject of the Roman history.'

This work, it is observed, in order to render it complete, only wants the connection between the events and the designs of Providence to be pointed out, as is so finely executed in the *Discours sur l' Histoire Universelle* of *Bossuet.*

We would here recommend it to young readers, frequently to peruse the *Considerations sur la Grandeur*, &c. before they enter on the *Esprit des Lois*; since they will thus become accustomed to the manner of this prince of political writers, and will be better able to follow and comprehend his design and meaning in his great inquiry. The lecturer bestows merited praise on the analysis of the *Esprit des Lois* by *D' Alembert;* which, indeed, ought ever to be bound up with that work, in order to be carefully read before the other is commenced.

M. La Harpe traces the fatal turn which the late revolution took, in the preference given to *Rousseau* over *Montesquieu.* Had the observations of the latter on the importance of intermediate powers in a monarchy been duly considered by the first assembly, France and the world, M. La H. thinks, would have been spared a host of the most dreadful calamities ever witnessed. He properly remarks that, when *Montesquieu* affirms that virtue is the principle of a republic, and honour that of a monarchy, he is speaking of the predominant general principles of

governments, and does not mean to say that each principle prevails exclusively in each government.

'He recommends it as most important under a monarchy to cherish the principle of honour as a sacred fire; and those who, at this day, are eye witnesses of the calamities of France, cannot be ignorant that honour had long dwindled among us into a name. Honour had given place to money. From the epoch of the system of *Law*, wealth had attained the first place. This change is discoverable in the whole of the revolution. One party was bent only on the seizure of property, the other thought only of defending it; the public welfare was overlooked by all; no one cast an eye on it, no one lifted up a hand to protect it.'

Characterizing the *Esprit des Lois* as a composition, the critic admits that the unaccountable breaks in the work, and the strange divisions of it into chapters, argue an affectation very unworthy of the illustrious author. 'Some of these (says he) contain only one or two phrases; and the more striking the phrase, the more clear it is that the author made it into a chapter solely to engage admiration.' It would have been more respectful to this great writer, and perhaps not more remote from the truth, if M. La H. had substituted in his last sentence the word *attention* for *admiration*.

Buffon next claims the notice of the lecturer, in the survey which he takes of the philosophy of the eighteenth century. Here he thus proceeds:

'The middle of that century was marked by three grand undertakings, the *Esprit des Lois*, the *Histoire Naturelle*, and the *Encyclopédie*; three memorable works which appeared nearly at the same time, and which, though very different in character and design, all belonged to that spirit of philosophy whose progress I have engaged to trace. The second of these, which in itself considered belongs to natural science, would have been foreign to my purpose, if the author had not united to the knowlege of a naturalist the talents of a great writer, and on that account advanced a claim to that tribute of honour which is due from every Frenchman to a man like *Buffon*, whose name constitutes one of our titles to national glory. What he was in science I do not stop to inquire; that he embellished its language is admitted on all hands; and his theories, which no longer lead any body astray, do not derogate from the merit of his style, which has always charmed his readers. *Buffon* is one of the few original writers who have given to the idiom in which they wrote the character of their genius, and who at the same time have applied it to new subjects. He was the first who employed the immense sources of natural science in order to enrich the French language, and he has executed the task without doing injury to the one or the other. His work is in this view a treasure of beauties unknown before his time. A continued elevation pervades it. His phrases are measured, and his expressions are forcible. His talents wanted only a little

a little more of suppleness and flexibility. The historian of nature is like herself noble, abundant, and majestic, but he possesses not her variety: like her he elevates himself without labour, or descends into little details without appearing a stranger to them: but he would charm us still more if the labour which he bestowed on his compositions had not deprived them of grace and simplicity. Though his style is not stiff like that of *Thomas*, nor *made up* like that of *Fontenelle*, still his noble diction, always studied, is deficient in that elegant ease which delicate readers expect, and of which the subject admits. On the other hand, sublime when he exhibits to our view the immensity of the animated creation, when he paints the benefits and severities of nature, the productions of the earth, and the influence of climate, he is perhaps less interesting while he describes the manners of those animals which are become our friends and benefactors, than he is energetic and terrible when he paints the savage ferocity of those between whom and ourselves an eternal warfare reigns. Just towards the antients who have preceded him in the same career, he ingenuously praises Pliny and Aristotle, while he is himself a greater writer than either.

'If *Buffon* be not free from affectation, and if he be too uniformly lofty, he does not appear to me to go out of his way in search of the sublime, nor ever to introduce it improperly, but seizes it when it offers itself to him. *Longinus*, who admits it in civil history, would not have interdicted it in that of nature. Why ought the style of *Buffon* to have been less elevated and less rich than that of his genius and his subject? What a subject! Was there ever one more adapted to exalt conception and language? The aspect of nature animates every man possessed of the least sensibility. What successive and varied views does it present! The horrors of wild solitude at the moment when night sheds darkness over it; the charms of an animated prospect as day breaks on it; the windings of groves and the depths of caverns; the freshness of meadows and the antiquity of forests; the menacing height of mountains, and the sweet simplicity of the hamlets at the feet of them; the majesty of the sea in a calm and in a tempest; all these objects impress us forcibly, and give us new sensations and new ideas. Even the ordinary traveller becomes eloquent at the sight of the Alps; and shall not he whose views embrace the whole creation, whose intelligence measures infinity, and whose contemplation is ever fixed on a spectacle the most grand, be allowed to display sublimity in his writings? The true sage ought not to be mortified at the limits assigned to his progress. Man is great by the sole use of his thinking powers, and by the extensive field of information which lies within his reach; be it that he subjects the heavens to his calculations, and be it that the organization of an insect confounds his understanding, he ought to feel his power without pride, and his weakness without discouragement.'

Though M. La Harpe does not enumerate *Buffon* as one of the faithful, he is unwilling to abandon him to the infidels. When this philosopher heard that the Sorbonne was about to censure his book, he published an explanation of his theories,

in order to shew that they were not inconsistent with the Mosaic cosmogony; at the same time he professed a high veneration for the scriptures, and for the authority of the church, which he admitted had the sole right to interpret them; when the new sect had become predominant at the academy, he discontinued his attendance at its sittings; and he applied for the sacraments, at the time of his dissolution. Whatever his belief might have been, it is certain that he disliked the manner of proceeding among the unbelieving faction. We are assured that he held its members in aversion, and that he feared them as little as he loved them. His personal consideration was equal to his fame; and he was attached by gratitude and principle to the government which had heaped favours on him. The agitations of a disaffected party did not comport with the laborious and pacific life of *Buffon* in the Royal Garden of Plants, in which he was sovereign, and to which he was a benefactor for thirty years; it was to him that the garden and the cabinet owed their order and magnificence. Few men have done greater honour to letters. Though *Voltaire* made more noise, and was more feared and sought, as being more the organ of the public sentiments, yet *Buffon* obtained higher respect, because this voice had never interrupted his glory, nor separated his person from his talents.

The observations of the author on the *Encyclopédie* deserve much attention, since he ably appreciates its merits, and forcibly exposes its defects. Of this vast undertaking, he says:—

'It ought never to have been forgotten that method, precision, and clearness of statement were principal objects to be attempted; that in all which concerned science and philosophy, principles, facts, and proofs only were to be inserted, and theories, digressions, controversies, and episodes were to be thrown aside; while in the fine arts, and in all matters of literature and taste, what was essential was solely to be stated, and all declamation was to be avoided. Every writer ought to have considered that he was not composing a complete work, but a part of a great one; a division of a grand whole, the plan and proportions of which he should carefully bear in mind. *D'Alembert* was capable of setting the example, as well as of giving precepts in this arduous task: but he confined himself to mathematics, and a few select heads of morals and literature. The contributions of *Dumarsais* prove him to have been the first of our grammarians. Those of *Voltaire* are admirable for their brevity, and make us regret that he was so capable of saying so much in such few words. He was now on his own ground; and his sense of propriety made him here call only reason to his assistance, leaving his passions behind. If we except these and a few other articles, what a mass of common place, of impertinencies, and of declamations, fill the pages of this mighty performance, and have swelled its size a full third more than was necessary. Scepticism, materialism, and atheism,

discover

discover themselves every where without veil or disguise, and it abounds with articles that are extremely weak and superficial.'

In connection with the *Encyclopédie*, the name of *D'Alembert* necessarily presents itself.

'Three men,' says M. La H. 'have really united two things which are almost always found separate, a genius for science and the talent of writing: *Pascal*, who devined (*devina*) the mathematics, and made discoveries in them while engaged in his *Lettres Provinciales* and his *Pensées*; *Buffon*, who, while he studied nature as an observer, described it with eloquence; and the original geometrician to whom we owe the preliminary discourse to the *Encyclopédie*. If the merit of this composition has been exaggerated, it has also been unduly depreciated. This vestibule to the palace of the sciences is regular and noble, constructed by a firm and sure hand; all the proportions are good, and the ornaments are select. This discourse alone would insure to the writer the reputation of an author and a man of letters; since it displays just and extensive conceptions, genuine taste, and a pure style. It is true that it does not attain the sublime, but it is methodical without being heavy, and correct without being dull; which is no small merit. The decisions betray no bias, though a respect is occasionally shewn to living authors,—a respect which is warranted by good breeding.'

The author bestows almost unqualified praise on *Elemens de Philosophie*, the *Eloges* on *Montesquieu*, *Dumarsais*, and *Bernouilli*, the *Memoires sur Christine*, and the *Essai sur les Gens de Lettres*: but in the latter, *D'Alembert* is charged with speaking of letters with undue pride, and of the great with unbecoming jealousy. His translation of some fragments of Tacitus sufficiently preserves the brevity of the original, but not its force, its animation, nor its colouring, and sometimes not even the sense: but the purity and perspicuity of the diction will always render this essay useful to those who would employ themselves on translations. All these pieces, considered in a general way, form valuable though not superior compositions.

D'Alembert, we are told, commenced his literary career late in life. His first work did him great credit, but the ambition of ruling in this new field led him astray. The absence of *Voltaire*, his fame as a man of science, the honours conferred on him by strangers, and his influence in the two Academies and among the Encyclopedists, fanned his passion for reigning in the capital of letters. His knowlege in literature was not profound, nor extensive, nor matured by labour; and his studies of another kind were opposed to it. Literature was the attire, not the wealth, of his mind. Fond of conversation, he carried the style of it into his closet, and it predominates in his writings. His compositions became a series of petty observations, affecting finesse and point; of light common ideas ostentatiously

analyzed, or sharpened into epigrams; of stale anecdotes in a novel form; and of old adages newly trimmed up. All this bespeaks an old man who lives on his former stores, and will not enable a person to be a legislator in matters of fancy and taste, which was the high province attempted by *D'Alembert*, and which the indulgence of the public suffered him long to usurp; but its patience at length wore out, applauses ceased, and mortifying receptions decided the aged secretary to remain in that silence which it would have been wise in him to have sooner prescribed to himself. Writers, adds the lecturer, cannot too forcibly impress their minds with the lesson which the present and so many other examples read to them, namely, that the infirmity of age is no title to indulgence; it is granted to youth in favour of hope: but nothing more than pity pleads for age, which appears sufficiently considerate in commanding it to repose.

This philosopher is reported to have been a sceptic in every thing except mathematics. He would no more assert that there was no religion, than he would affirm that there was a God: but he regarded theism as the more probable, and revelation as the less. He was not an enemy to any opinions, but hated the insupportable and intolerant arrogance of the Atheists. He lived in intimacy with strict christians, and spoke with raptures of the eloquent divines of the age of Louis XIV. He was struck by the harmony between their principles and their conduct, between their profession and their virtues; and he never disgraced himself, like the philosophers of the revolution, by calling them fanatics and declaimers.—The sketch of his private character here given is finely drawn. His manners appear to have been attractive, and his worth great; indeed he seems to have had no other faults than his scepticism and literary vanity. He respected religion in his writings during his lifetime: but his correspondence, which he prepared for the press, and which was published after his death, shews him to have possessed the spirit of the new school, and to have been a strenuous abettor of its measures.

Condillac next engages the attention of M. La Harpe. This author, though justly much esteemed in France, is little interesting to us on this side of the water; since he is rich only from the plunder of our writers, and we can consult him merely on account of the admirable method with which he exhibits the principles and doctrines that he has borrowed from foreign sources. Besides the obligations which he owes to Locke, and which he confesses, we apprehend that he dived into Hartley and Hume; though he shews his judgment in not encumbering his pages with the intricate theory of the one, and

the singular paradoxes of the other. Our own writers are the great masters in this line; and in no branch of knowlege do we so much surpass our neighbours, as in that which respects the true theory of the mind. No other nation, as far as we know, can boast of original authors on this subject. We have already hinted that a work, tracing the progress of these researches, and noting discoveries, would be a patriotic as well as a highly useful performance.

A young soldier, named *Vauvenargues*, who died prematurely from the sufferings which he underwent in the retreat from Prague, receives great commendation from M. LA HARPE as a moral writer. His collection is intitled *Réflexions et Maximes.* An introduction to the knowlege of the human mind forms a part of it, consisting of fragments which were materials for a large treatise, never completed. M. *Vauvenargues* appears to have been a hero in literature as well as in arms; for we learn that, when he perceived the certain approaches of death, he employed his remaining hours in preparing his papers for the press. The lecturer says of him:

'He was not less a skilful critic than a profound moralist, as is evidenced by his *Réflexions Critiques sur quelques Poètes.—Corneille* and *Racine* had never before been appreciated with so much discrimination and correctness; and it is in his pages that we first meet with those ideas, which have been since unfolded more at large in *Voltaire*'s Commentary on *Corneille.* As a moralist, he has more elevation of sentiment than *La Rochefoucault;* and he as much exalts man as that author had degraded him. He is neither so pointed nor so striking as *La Bruyere*, nor has he the finished diction of *Duclos:* but he has more of imagery in his style than the latter, and speaks more to the soul than either.'

Duclos appears next on the scene; and the author's sketch of him is in his best manner: though the colouring is high, he can hardly be said to flatter him. He regards his *Considérations sur les Mœurs de ce Siécle* as one of the best existing treatises in the French language on the subject of morals. Few men, it is said, have been endowed with finer abilities than *Duclos*, not only as they appear in studied performances, but as they are honorable to men in society. This resemblance of the conversation to the writings, which is more regarded in eminent authors, because we search in vain for it in most instances, was striking in *Duclos.* His conversation resembled his style: a decided precision, frequent sallies, laboured but pointed turns, and measured phrases, distinguished him; and he appeared in society, as well as in his writings, a strongly marked character. He passed for the man of the finest parts *(le plus bel esprit)* in Paris, though *Fontenelle* was still alive, and *Voltaire* was in all his vigour.

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The subsequent passage speaks volumes on the moral mischief occasioned by the revolution:

'There is not a trace, at the moment in which I write, of that empire of ridicule of which France, and Paris above all, once promised to be for ever the seat. This change is owing to the revolution. There is not to be found in all France a man to whom, at this day, ridicule can be an object;—the word is become a mere abstract term. On how many facts and sentiments must have been founded a change so unforeseen by the French! There is no ridicule where there is no honor; nor can honor reside where public opinion has ceased to be felt: for how can the latter exist where the slavery is such, that all must use the same language, or condemn themselves to absolute silence under the pain of death.'

M. La Harpe is unable to establish the title of a believer in favour of *Duclos:* but he shews that he was averse to that zeal in impiety which began openly to discover itself in his later days.

About the period in which the *Encyclopédie* was commenced, a number of learned persons formed an association of a different kind; the intention of which was to enlighten the public and the government on the following subjects:—political economy, commerce, revenue, traffic in corn, and other matters which, till that time, had been regarded as unconnected with letters, but which partook of the spirit of reform and innovation that was beginning to be predominant. The numerous abuses that prevailed made this be regarded as a necessary spirit; and self-love considered it as a proof of superiority of mind. A solicitude for the public welfare was, doubtless, the spring which set in motion the first founders of this society. It became, at length, a sect called that of the *Economists;* of which the chief was the physician *Quesnay*, and of which the virtuous *Turgot* was the ornament and the support.

The origin of the philosophical career of *Helvetius* is here traced to a cause which well accords with the system of that philosopher, but which appears to us, for that very reason, to be suspicious. M. La Harpe, as little a friend as ourselves to the paradoxes of *Helvetius*, and to his effeminate philosophy, states the fact without intimating the least doubt of its authenticity:

'The author of the *Esprit*, while yet young, and coveting every species of enjoyment within the reach of his age, his accomplishments, and his wealth, beheld in a public garden a man who had none of these advantages, and to whom a circle of women were doing honor. It was *Maupertuis*, just returned from his voyage towards the pole, and who had acquired a temporary reputation in the sciences. *Helvetius* was struck with the consideration which the reputation of a man of letters was able to ensure. He had hitherto succeeded easily

easily in all that he had attempted. He had danced to admiration at the opera, under the mask of *Juvilliers*, one of the first dancers of the time. He had already made attempts in poetry; he had submitted his verses to *Voltaire*, and the lettered veteran had politely intimated that this was not his proper line. He then directed his attention to philosophy, and connected himself with its chiefs, particularly with *Diderot*.'

The lecturer satisfactorily repels the charge made against our philosophical fine gentleman, that his *de l'Esprit* was chiefly drawn up by *Diderot:* but he does not regard it as improbable that *Helvetius* borrowed his leading ideas from conversations with that friend. As his hypothesis, he observes, every where terminates in materialism, it is probable that the basis of it was furnished to a man of the world, of course little conversant with these matters, by a man of letters by profession, an apostle of atheism, who loved nothing better than to make disciples. The system of *Helvetius* proves it to be the work of one individual. His style is in general correct and pure, but boasts little of character. He sometimes displays brilliancy, but never either warmth or force; and in that respect, his diction coincides with his doctrine, which reduces sensibility to pure materiality. His imagination is heated only by shewy or voluptuous pictures, which indicates a spirit little adapted for philosophy.

It will be more easy to complain of the severity than to arraign the justice of the following passage:

'The paradoxes of this author were the more readily adopted by numbers, because they were discovered to flatter the passions, to lower the standard of virtue, and to furnish excuses for vice. An examination of the lucubrations of philosophers, down from the date of the works of *Helvetius*, warrants me in saying, that the principal and most successful cause of their gaining readers and followers arose from their enlisting the passions on their side. Such is the basis of their systems, the general spirit of their sect, and the principle of their success. The method is not very honorable: but with a little address it is almost sure to succeed, at least for a time, for nothing is more easy than to pass off as a theory a corruption which already exists as a fashion.'

The letter of *Diderot* to Sir William Jones, given in the life of that remarkable man by Lord Teignmouth, is confirmatory of this heavy charge. Every good mind will be charmed by the reflections of our countryman, whose morals were as pure as his talents were great, on that infamous epistle.

M. La Harpe blends detailed accounts of the private life and literary history of *Diderot*, with a laboured refutation of his principles. If this part of the lectures will weary the reader, it must be owned that it abounds with information respecting the French school of philosophy, which is not elsewhere to be collected.

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The remainder of the volume consists of sketches left imperfect by the author, and which present no great interest. The scattered thoughts committed by him to paper, and which were intended to have constituted part of his Apology for Christianity, prove that he regarded his conversion more as the effect of a miraculous interference of Heaven, than as the result of a full investigation of the subject; that he did not assume religion as an affair of conviction, but fly to it as a stay to a broken spirit, sinking under calamity. We are concerned to state that he appears to us to have become not a liberal and enlightened Christian, but a bigotted devotee, a blind partisan of the Romish church.

Near the close of the sixteenth volume, we meet with a short account of the life and works of this celebrated writer. The editors inform us that a very eminent literary man had promised to pay this tribute to the memory of the deceased: but that an appointment to a high situation had rendered it impossible for him to fulfil his engagement. In the regret which they testify on the occasion, the reader will doubtless join; since their effort is little calculated to palliate the disappointment.—M. *Petitot* is quoted as arguing that M. La Harpe's conversion must have been sincere, inasmuch as it gave new vigour to his talents; an effect which, he tells us, never can be produced by hypocrisy. 'Besides,' he observes, 'hypocrisy has always some motive which induces it to practise a deception on the world; and without some consideration of that sort actuating a man, it is absurd to ascribe this vice to him. How could it be the interest of M. La Harpe to affect piety in the midst of the enemies of religion? What enjoyment could he anticipate from the persecutions which he was sure of drawing on himself, when, by retaining his antient errors, he might have acquired honours and emoluments? It is absurd to compliment hypocrisy with a spirit of martyrdom.'—We entertain no suspicions of the sincerity of the lecturer's conversion: but we doubt whether it deserves to be regarded as that triumph in favour of religion which it has been considered by some persons. The Romish fanaticism, with which his piety was tinctured, derogates very much from its value in our estimation: but we ought, in justice to his memory, to add that his piety was not allied to intolerance, and that, however zealous he shewed himself for his late-adopted principles, he always protested against calling persecution to their support.

The greater portion of Vol. xvi. Part II. is occupied with a most useful and copious analytical index to the whole work.

Imperfect setts of these Lectures may be completed at M. *de Boffe*'s, in Gerrard Street.

Jo. Art.

ART. VIII. *Description des Alpes Grecques et Cottiennes, &c.* i. e. A Description of the Grecian and Cottian Alps, or an Historical and Statistical View of Savoy, under the Heads of its Antiquity, Extent, Population, Ruins, and Mineralogical Productions. Also an Abridged History of the Military and Political Events which have occurred in this Province from the Period of its being united to France in 1792, to the Peace of Amiens, in 1802. By J. F. ALBANIS BEAUMONT. Part I. in 2 Vols. 4to. with a Folio Atlas of Plates. Paris. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 5l. 5s. sewed.

FREQUENT opportunities have been afforded to us, for mentioning with respect the labours of this diligent and ingenious foreigner. In our account of the last work which he published in this country, intitled *Travels from France to Italy through the Lepontine Alps* *, we mentioned that he had quitted the establishment of the Duke of Gloucester, to which he had been attached for the purpose of superintending the military education of Prince William, in order to return to his own country; animated with a desire of putting the finishing stroke to his Picture of the Alps, by describing that stupendous chain of mountains at the foot of which he was born, and of thus paying his last respects to his native soil. Possessed of an enterprising soul, and warm in his patriotic feelings, he could not satisfy himself with the execution of this part of his undertaking from the memorandums, notices, and sketches which he had made in his youth; and he resolved, therefore, to re-explore and re-consider the subject, before he gave to the public his account of Savoy, which includes the most interesting department of the Alps, and near the capital of which (Chamberry) he first drew his breath.

M. BEAUMONT's views of the *Pennine*, *Rhœtian*, *Maritime*, and *Lepontine* Alps are in the cursory form of travels: but his description of the *Grecian* and *Cottian* Alps, the only part of the chain which remained unnoticed, is more laboured; and the zeal of the Allobroge is manifest in every part. It was in the year 1796 that he left England to repair to his native province at the base of the Cottian Alps, and it is manifest, from the present work, that he has not been idle. He appears before us in the several characters of philosopher, antiquary, artist, and philologist; and if his inquiries respecting etymology and antient geography be not generally interesting, they will prove his diligence and assiduity, and be at least acceptable to his own

* See M. R. Vol. xxxv. N.S. p. 166, where also references are made to his preceding Alpine excursions.

countrymen.

countrymen. Like most French writers, when he copies from Strabo, Arrian, Diodorus Siculus, &c. he employs only Latin translations, and his references are not always made with sufficient precision. We have also observed some inaccuracies in the quotations, which probably arose from the author's distance from Paris, where the work was printed.

A great part of this publication is occupied on the subject of Antiquities. It is curious to observe in this research how time, and the revolutions of ages, obliterate the proudest trophies of human vanity; how ineffectual are often the attempts of individuals to perpetuate their fame; how whimsically the fragments of antient grandeur and superstitions are distributed in the lapse of ages; and how altars, sarcophagi, votive tablets, or the sculptured embellishments of temples, amphitheatres, and triumphal arches, are worked up among common materials in the erection of cemeteries, stables, drains, ovens, and belfries *! It is also worthy of remark, how little is comparatively learnt from these scattered remains, and how much conjecture is employed in illustrating the history connected with them! We are persuaded that it has been M. Beaumont's object to discover and report the truth, and that he is intitled to the motto which he has taken,

"*Nec mihi Socratico decreto*
Fas esse arbitror,
Vel occuluisse veritatem,
Vel concessisse mendacium...."

Boeth. *de Consol.* lib. 2.

but we are inclined to suspect that, in some instances, he has been deceived, and that in others he has been too precipitate in his conclusions.

Indignant at the representations of Savoy, which have been given by some writers and travellers, as being the poorest country in Europe, as the least worthy of being known, and as only celebrated for the fidelity, bravery, and Celtic sobriety of its inhabitants, the author warmly espouses her cause: endeavouring to refute these unfounded calumnies; and, by tracing the history of *Allobrogia* from its source, by displaying its importance in the times of the Romans, by statistical accounts of its present condition, and by historical details, to render her that 'justice which others seem to have denied.' His undertaking, when completed, will consist of two parts, making four volumes, with a distinct atlas to each part. Of these we have

* In one of his excursions, M. B found a poor Savoyard using a broken cinerary urn as a vessel to hold salt.

two

two only now before us. The first volume of the first part is devoted to an ample discussion of the origin of the *Allobroges*, and the people of the Alps; of their establishment in Gaul; of the districts which they occupied; and of the most remarkable events which accompanied the reduction of their country to the state of a Roman province.

This discussion is introduced by some remarks on the Alps in general, including a notice of the etymology of the word, which the author derives neither from the Greek Αλπεις, nor the Latin *Alba*, but from the Celtic monosyllables AL, signifying *other*, and PEN, *top*. We, however, are rather inclined to concur with those who consider the first part of the name, *Alp*, as a corruption of *Alb*, referring to the whiteness occasioned by the eternal snow which covers their summits. This lofty chain of mountains, which stretches, in an irregular direction, from Genoa to Istria, occupying an extent of 350 leagues, was inhabited, when invaded by the Romans, by different nations; all of which, however, seem to have proceeded from one common Celtic or Scythian origin. M. BEAUMONT has taken great pains to ascertain the topography of these antient inhabitants of the Alps: he has not only endeavoured to fix the situation of the *Lepontii*, the *Rhœti*, and the *Liguri*, but of the *Nantuates*, *Veragri*, *Acitavones*, *Centrones*, *Garoceli*, *Bramovices*, &c.; and in the *Carte* of antient Savoy, which is given in the atlas of Plates, we perceive the result of his persevering researches; since here he has laid down, with as much precision as the case would admit, the sites of towns and Roman stations mentioned in antient history, and has endeavoured to trace the directions of the several *viæ consulares* which intersected this province. He thus describes the boundaries of the country of the *Allobroges:*

'The lake Leman, or *lacus Lemanus*, together with that part of the Rhône which reaches from Geneva to the defile of *Clusus*, or Fort Ecluse, separates the territory of the Allobroges from that of the *Latobriges* and *Helvetii*, now the *Pays de Vaud* and Swisserland; while, on the west, the same river, which beyond Fort Ecluse takes a southern direction to *Augusta Colonia* (Aost), served as a barrier against the *Secusiani* or *Sebusiani* and the *Sequani*, a people who then inhabited Bresse, Bugey, and the ci devant *Franche-Comté*. Pliny gives to these last, the title of Liberi (lib. iii. cap. 20.): but Cæsar, in his Commentaries, calls them *Secusiani clientes Æduorum;* because, according to this writer, their country was one of those which were included *pagis Æduorum*. As it appears that Allobrogia formerly extended to Lyons, the course of the Rhône continued to serve it as a boundary to the vicinity of that city.

'From the south, stretching towards the east, the course of the Isere or Isara, from *Oblimum* (Conflant) to its discharge into the

Rhône, separated this province from that of the *Segalauni, Vocontii, Bramovices*, and *Centrones*. The first inhabited the ci-devant Lower Dauphiny, the second the Upper, towards the Alps. To the north-east of Allobrogia, were the *Acitavones*, and the country of the *Nantuates* (Chablais) served as its boundary on the north.'

Though antient geographers are not agreed respecting the situation of the country of the *Nantuates*, M. BEAUMONT observes that there appears to him little difficulty in settling this point. He thinks that it is clearly indicated in Cæsar's Commentaries; and if any doubt remains it must be removed by the inscription *Nantuates patroni*, &c. found at St. Maurice, a little town on the Rhône, formerly included in the territory of this people.

Speaking of *Allobrogia* itself, he observes that 'it contained many very considerable cities, as Vienne, or *Civitas Allobrogum*, which, in course of time, became the capital of the province; Geneva, or *Colonia Allobrogum*; Annecy, or *Binia*; and, according to some writers, *Civitas Bovis*, Chamberry, or rather *Lemens*, a very antient city, of which the ruins only exist; *Cularo*, Grenoble, and many others, without mentioning towns and villages.'

This descendant of the Allobroges, while he depicts the former importance of his country, does not omit to celebrate the bravery displayed by these mountaineers in their frequent and sanguinary battles with the Romans; and he records with pride the long resistance which they opposed against the conquerors of the world. He then subjoins an abridged account of the little Alpine nations who were allies of the Allobroges, with attempts to explain the derivation of some modern appellations; though he confesses the difficulty of ascertaining the true etymology of the greatest part of the names now given to the different provinces of Gaul.

In the chapter intitled *Observations on the Population of the Grecian and Cottian Alps, or the Manners, Customs, and Usages of the Inhabitants*, &c. we find many particulars meriting notice. We are here informed that

'The mean population of the Alps, calculated on a square league of ground, taken at random along the whole chain of mountains, (*i. e.* those which are adapted to cultivation,) surpass by a sixteenth, the mean population of the plains of Italy, taken on an equal surface, the cities only excepted.'

M. BEAUMONT adverts, with peculiar pleasure, to the family likeness which prevails among all the Alpine inhabitants; —to that marked character which time and revolutions seem to have respected, and which different forms of government have been unable to obliterate.

'Some

'Some shades, and certain variations exist in their manners, usages, and perhaps some in their natural constitution: but these are so slight, that they often escape the notice of the most attentive observer, who recognizes in them a distinct class of men, easily distinguished, when they are found mixed with the inhabitants of the plains. Their figure, which is commonly of the middle size, their square shoulders, their broad forehead, their high cheek-bones, their long waists, and their well formed legs, are so many characteristic traits of these mountaineers, which can scarcely be mistaken. In spite, however, of this general similitude, how different are the people which are scattered over this long zone of mountains! What an astonishing variety in their idioms, their habits, their dress, and even in their forms of government! Here an absolute monarchy, there a theocracy; here a democracy, and there a republican aristocracy.

'Notwithstanding that these people live under governments so opposite to each other, and speak languages so different,—one using the *lingua Franca*, another German, another Italian, another French, and another a jargon composed of all these tongues, of which the basis is the Celtic,—yet they preserve an indelible character, which displays the influence of climate on the moral and physical constitution of man.'

One of the author's arguments, in proof of the descent of the Savoyards from the Celts and Scythians, is not very satisfactory, viz. that both were addicted to witchcraft and necromancy, and believed in fairies and nocturnal assemblies of evil spirits. Such faith and superstition might rather be adduced as an evidence of the general absence of science, than as a demonstration of a particular line of ancestors. The uncultivated imagination is usually filled with spectres and preternatural images. We leave this subject, however, to attend to his farther delineations of national character.

'The Savoyards are in general robust, and the women are rather pretty than otherwise, being tall, plump, and fresh-coloured. I must here make one observation, which I think has escaped the naturalists who have explored the Alps; viz. that the tall mountaineers are found mostly to inhabit the vallies which, as well on this as on the other side of the high Alps, bound that portion of the chain which extends from Mount Iseran to Brenner in the Tyrol. It is also in the same vallies that the inhabitants are most cheerful, hospitable, and comfortable. We perceive in their countenances a look of contentment and happiness which we do not find among those who occupy the other vallies of the Alps. I believe, however, that I ought to attribute these advantages, in some respect, to their distance from large cities, to their simple way of life, and to the independence which they enjoy under their mode of government. In an uniform and tranquil course of life, they generally attain a great age.

'As to the morals of these mountaineers, and in particular of the inhabitants of the Grecian and Cottian Alps, *i. e.* of those of Upper Savoy, it may be said with truth that, in spite of the effects of the

revolution, and especially of the war of which the Alps have been the theatre, from Genoa to Carinthia, the national character has not generally suffered any stain. Openness, probity, fidelity, and courage, are the qualities which distinguish the Savoyards from their neighbours. The idea of theft, and a want of confidence, are viewed in such abhorrence, and these vices are so little known among them, that frequently in traversing these mountains I have entered houses without finding a single person in them. The individuals to whom they belonged were at their ordinary work in the fields, while the doors of their habitations were open, with an entire confidence in the honesty of their neighbours and of travellers. Truth, however, obliges me to confess that, since the union of Savoy with France, some individuals belonging to the *ci-devant* duchy, forgetting the virtue of their ancestors, have committed many depredations on the highways, and in the dwellings of their fellow citizens. I record with pain that many have suffered, or are about to suffer the punishment due to their crimes; and it is melancholy to reflect that most of these are young persons, who have been instigated by unhappy circumstances to transgress the law, and to commence robbers in order to obtain subsistence. Many, at the period of the invasion of Savoy by the French, served in the national militia attached to the king of Sardinia, and accompanied their respective regiments into Piedmont when the royal army retreated in 1793. These bodies having been dissolved at the peace, numbers of those who composed them sought to return to their own homes: but, finding themselves inscribed in the list of emigrants, or fearing to be put in requisition, they concealed themselves for a long time in the mountains, and became plunderers from necessity.'

It appears from this statement that the revolution has not been propitious to the morality of Savoy; for it seems to have added to the vices, without curing the ignorance of the people. The author, indeed, prescribes the means of promoting their civilization: but we are not informed that effectual measures are taken to attain this object.

The moral features of the different Alpine nations are sketched with conciseness:

'The inhabitants of the Maritime and of part of the Cottian Alps are to a certain degree hospitable: but, in spite of their courtesy and compliments, they suffer it to be seen that they expect to be paid for the services which they render: they are more humble and submissive than other mountaineers towards those who approach them with something distinguishing in their exterior, but haughty and assuming towards those whom they regard as their inferiors or equals. Their land is indifferently cultivated, and their cottages *(chaumieres)* want that neatness which distinguishes those of the people belonging to Upper Tarantaise, Swisserland, and the Tyrol. Those who inhabit the Grecian and Pennine Alps are more honest, frank, hospitable, and better informed: but they are ceremonious, obstinate, and warmly attached to their interest. It is a singular trait in their character,

character, that, though strongly addicted to avarice, if they perceive a traveller in want, they press their hospitality on him without any mercenary view. Naturally cunning, and having some instruction, they evince a decided taste for commerce and speculation; and many of them are connected with the banks in Holland.—The inhabitants of the Lepontine Alps are honest without being courteous, good, but blunt, having a high opinion of themselves, their country, and their independence, of which they are extremely jealous. They love wine, and of all the people of the Alps are the most warlike and robust.—They who inhabit the Rhætian and Carinthian Alps partake in a great measure of the character of the Lepontines, to which they bear a physical resemblance: but they are more affable, hospitable, gentle, adroit, and lively. They have a passion for music, and particularly delight in wind instruments. They are very religious and ceremonious; and they have preserved, more than any others, the usages and manners of their Celto-Scythian ancestors.'

To this picture of the people is added a general landscape of the country; if words can be said to delineate regions which, by the grandeur and sublimity of their features, seem todefy all description.

'If, (says M. B.) a traveller, instigated by a curiosity which despises fatigue and danger, should place himself at sun-rising on one of the high peaks of the Alps, how would he be recompensed by agreeable surprise and admiration, when he saw the most sublime picture of nature gradually developing before him! His eyes would first be directed, with a kind of terror, to a series of stupendous precipices, and to deep and narrow vallies, where impetuous and noisy torrents are engulphed; whose waters, covered with foam, pleasingly contrast themselves with the dark colour of the firs and larches which clothe the abrupt sides of the mountains: while his view, extended a little farther, delightfully ranges over a succession of smiling hills, and charming vales, which, sheltered from the north winds, present an appearance of the most lively vegetation. He perceives also a number of small hamlets, scattered here and there, surrounded with rich vineyards and orchards. The object, however, which most captivates his attention, is the transition from vegetation the most luxuriant to extinguished nature, if I may use the expression; or to immense *glaciers,* stretching beyond the horizon. This transition from animated to frozen nature is in many places so sudden, that scarcely has the cheering and delicious image of the former been impressed on the mind, when it is effaced by the new image presented by the latter; which exhibits, in colours not less strong nor less correct, the frozen ice of Greenland, and the savage deserts of Siberia.'

M. Beaumont proceeds to describe the phænomena of thunder-storms, observed from the elevated ridges of the Alps, and the devastations often produced by lightning in the vales below: but we must quit the province of the picturesque, and attend to the author's antiquarian excursions.

Having inserted, in his valuable *Carte*, the six provinces which constituted the Duchy of Savoy, the author labours to find the direction of the different consular ways from Italy into Gaul through Allobrogia, and the Grecian and Cottian Alps; and to ascertain, with some exactness, the names of the Roman cities situated on these ways, as well as of those of the antient inhabitants which have, to the present day, retained their Celtic etymology. This is a part of the work on which considerable patience and attention have been bestowed. Not only has the itinerary of Antoninus been consulted and compared with the accounts of Peutinger and Jerusalem, respecting the Roman *viæ* which crossed the Alps, but recourse has been had to actual admeasurements, and to the evidence of remains found in the particular spots. M. BEAUMONT ascertains the site of the different stations mentioned by Antoninus, and establishes facts which were either mutilated or omitted by his editors. In his researches for this purpose, he employed a milometer, graduated after the Roman measurement; and those who inhabit this region, or who are solicitous to trace its history, will be grateful for the pains which have been taken to satisfy their curiosity. Aware of the difficulties and mistakes inseparable from such an attempt, the author modestly hopes that, if he has not intirely accomplished the object which he proposed to himself, his inquiries will at least animate others to engage in the same pursuit; which cannot fail of throwing light on the history of his country, and of augmenting our acquaintance with antient geography.

The remainder of the first volume is occupied by an explanation of the several inscriptions, monuments of antiquity, &c. found in the *ci-devant* Duchy of Savoy; and of which, representations are given in more than twenty plates.

'These precious remains of Roman grandeur appear to have triumphed over the destructive efforts of so many ages, for the purpose of testifying, by their elegance, beauty, and perfection, the magnificence and good taste of these conquerors of the world; and of proving that, in spite of the ice and eternal snow which cover the tops of the mountains bordering this province, they did not look on Allobrogia as unworthy of their regard, admiration, and residence: since it is evident from these testimonies, that not only many Roman colonies established themselves there, but that Patrician families chose it for their country seats, and that temples, baths, triumphal arches, &c. were erected in it.'

A great portion of these remains of antiquity are mere fragments, which do not merit individual notice, but of which the abundance establishes the author's position respecting the consequence of his country in the times of the Romans. M. BEAUMONT

BEAUMONT laments that so many testimonies of this kind should have been demolished; and he recommends it to the French government to establish a museum in each department, for the preservation of the curious monuments of the taste and grandeur of past ages. We cannot undertake to decide how far he has accurately copied these antiquities, and we shall not examine his illustrations. In some cases, we meet with what appear to us trivial errors, but they scarcely merit specification.

While this author resided at Aix (Mont Blanc) for the benefit of its waters in a rheumatic complaint, he made some interesting discoveries relative to the baths formerly erected there by the Romans; and he has endeavoured, from existing vestiges, to sketch their original plan and elevation. He conjectures that the arch at Aix, which has been considered by some to be sepulchral, constituted the entrance to these splendid erections: but this conjecture does not yet appear to be sufficiently established. As the antient level of the streets is ten feet below the present surface, which has been raised by the rubbish of destroyed edifices, it is probable that, by digging, many antiquities would be discovered; and that something would be found to ascertain when and by whom these magnificent baths were constructed.

The second volume contains a concise history of the most remarkable events which have taken place in Gaul and Allobrogia, from the first irruption of the Franks, Goths, &c. to the tenth century, when Savoy began to have a distinct government. To these historical details are added an account of her population, agriculture, commerce, mines, revenue, &c.; an analysis of her mineral waters; and a description of the valley and sulphureous baths of Lauben, situated at the extremity of the department of Leman, five leagues from Geneva. These statistical particulars will be more interesting to the inhabitants and to the French government, than to the foreign reader; and, at present at least, we cannot enter into a minute report of them. M. B. finishes this first part with biographical sketches of the men of letters and artists who have been born in Savoy; reflecting with great satisfaction on the rich harvest of genius which this province has yielded.

We shall receive with pleasure the continuation of this work;—which is introduced by a *flaming* dedication to Bonaparte, under whose dominion the author now writes.

Moy.

ART. IX. *Voyage dans l' Empire Othoman, &c. i. e.* Travels in the Ottoman Empire, Egypt, and Persia; undertaken by order of the Government, during the first six years of the Republic, by G. A. OLIVIER, M. D. Member of the National Institute, of the Society of Agriculture of the Department of the Seine, and of various other learned Societies. Vols. III. and IV. 8vo. With a 4to. Atlas. Paris, 1804. Imported by de Boffe. Price 1*l.* 8*s.* sewed.

As the remarks which we hazarded on the first two volumes of this work, in their English garb *, appear to be equally applicable to the present continuation of the original, we purposely avoid repeating them; and without farther preface or apology, we shall attend the author on his progress through Egypt, Syria, and Mesopotamia. In the company of such a judicious and accurate traveller, we could gladly linger on the banks of the Nile, or explore the catacombs and pyramids: but recent accounts of these interesting objects have so much multiplied, and have so much solicited our attention, that we are desirous of limiting our notices to those particulars which have been omitted or slightly treated by preceding writers.

Of this description, are the statements of the offices civil and military attached to Alexandria, and of the population, manufactures, and agriculture of Rosetta. The sketch of the political history of Egypt, though rapid and cursory, will likewise be found to be deserving of consideration. It is terminated by these striking remarks:

'When we reflect that from seven to eight thousand foreign slaves, bred in the most shameful vices, and in the most profound ignorance, rising to influence by the most odious means, and by a series of unparalleled crimes, now govern at pleasure two or three millions of people in the most antient and memorable abode of man, most arrogantly sport with the public misery in the richest country in the world,—and dispose, in the most arbitrary manner, of the lives and fortunes of all the inhabitants of Egypt,—we are astonished at so much audacity on the one hand, and so much baseness on the other: but, after so many revolutions, which necessarily implied tyranny, and a tyranny always increasing, as their cause and end, the Egyptian people have become so moulded to servitude, that they do not even think of availing themselves of those dissensions which constantly prevail among the Mamelukes, in order to rescue themselves from their dominion.

'To prove the extent of their abject degradation, we need only quote their sufferings in 1793, during a famine, which they knew to be caused by a monopoly on the part of the chiefs of the government. While corn abounded, while the granaries of Mourad and of Ibrahim were filled, while the dealers exposed to sale, as usual, the necessaries of life, hunger every where preyed on the unfortunate, who could not afford the excessive price demanded for the articles of subsistence;

* See Rev. N. S. Vol. xli. p. 113.

and

and none were seen in the streets but cadaverous wretches, who fed on the most disgusting refuse, and disputed the vilest garbage with the dogs. More than three hundred corpses were daily found at the doors of the rich and of the bakers: yet the people uttered not the slightest murmur, nor made the most trivial effort to break into the granaries of Mourad and Ibrahim, or to perish at once by the sword of their satellites rather than by the slow and dreadful torments of hunger.'

A very full and instructive account of the present state of Egypt might now be compiled from the various publications, foreign and domestic, to which the political events of later times have given birth. If any person, indued with the requisite talents, should undertake this useful task, we would venture to recommend the present work to his particular notice, as containing much accurate and temperate information. Even the chapter in which the author vindicates, or rather in which he attempts to vindicate, the motives that prompted the Egyptian expedition, is free from declamation; and it presents us with very *plausible* arguments, founded chiefly on the despotism exercised by the Mamelukes, and the vexations to which the French traders were constantly subjected. Various important and striking facts may also be collected from M. Olivier's observations on the temperature and salubrity of the climate, on the nature of the prevailing winds, on the amount of natural products, and of the exports and imports in particular districts.

Of the minor details, a few only will be found novel or entertaining. To this latter class, belongs the picture of the Alexandrine Arabs, which is drawn with happy powers of discrimination. Among these Arabs are expert divers, who sometimes perforate the bottoms of European vessels, that they may be employed to stop the leak; and their usual practice is to attack vessels that are loaded, and ready to put to sea, because the captain will rather hire a diver than unship the cargo. The man who has done the mischief then never fails to appear, and offers to perform the service for fifty or sixty dollars.

'We were told that an Italian captain, who expected this trick to be played on him, caused the bottom of his ship, some days before his departure, to be covered with nets, in which a diver was intangled. As he was taken up dead, the affair was attended with serious consequences both to the captain and the country to which he belonged; because in Egypt, as in all the Ottoman Empire, nothing excuses the *Infidel* who is the cause of the death of a *Mussulman*.'

From some fragments of antique porcelain, M. Olivier infers that the manufacture of that article had attained to a less perfect state than it has done in modern Europe; the paste being of unequal thickness, scaly, and of a greenish tint.

Some

Some non-descript shells, as *Ampulla Ovata*, *A. carinata*, *Cyclostoma unicolor*, &c. are noticed in the fourth chapter of the third volume: but most of the details relative to Natural History are reserved for a separate work, which, we are given to understand, is in a state of forwardness.

The author's remarks on the *Jerboa* are satisfactory, in so far as they refute the erroneous assertion of several naturalists, that this singular animal walks only on its hind feet. Its precipitate and oblique march is here well described by an eye-witness. M. OLIVIER, moreover, observes that this quadruped is not properly a nocturnal animal; for in winter, it issues from its haunt at all hours of the day, and in summer remains in confinement merely to avoid the heat. In the south of Siberia, it becomes torpid during the cold season: but in Syria, Arabia, and Egypt, it continues to move about, and to feed, all the year round.

From the account which is given of *Cynomorium coccineum*, it appears to merit the attention of those persons who are interested in the art of dyeing. It is a parasitical plant, which is found adhering to the roots of glassworts, sodas, and other shrubs; and it is indigenous not only to Egypt, but to Sicily, Malta, the neighbourhood of Leghorn, and the whole Barbary coast. Both the plant and its expressed juice are of a beautiful scarlet hue; and the nankeen and deep-rose shades, which they impart to woollen, silken, cotton, and linen stuffs, resist soap, vinegar, and the action of the sun's rays.

M. OLIVIER's remarks on the black and white *Ibis* are ingenious, and tend, in some measure, to remove the obscurity in which the subject has been involved by preceding naturalists. According to the antients, the black species inhabited only the environs of Pelusium, whereas the white was found all over Egypt. These birds are, by some, described as storks, and by others as herons. Some writers pretend to assign their genus, but leave the species undetermined. M. *Cuvier*, in a Memoir read before the National Institute, and published in the *Journal de Physique* (year 8. p. 184.) has described the white Ibis, from a specimen which belonged to the collection of the late Stadtholder; and which, with another, received from Egypt, is now deposited in the national Museum of Natural History. His description perfectly accords with that of Herodotus: but the *abouhannès* of Bruce, both from the disposition of its colours, and the size of its bill, appears to be a different bird. The black Ibis has not yet been found; or, at least, the bird so denominated by some modern naturalists in no degree corresponds with that described by Herodotus. It is worthy of remark, that the Italian or green curlew of *Buffon*, whose general

general aspect approaches to black, has been found in an embalmed state. 'I have a mummy, whose plumage is in sufficient preservation to remove all doubt on the subject. Besides, the bill and the legs of this bird, which are found in almost all the mummies, suit it exactly. We have likewise found several preserved bills, which evidently belong to other species; and from this circumstance we are inclined to suspect that the Egyptians did not limit their homage to the two sorts of Ibis mentioned by Herodotus.' In fact, if the diminution of noisome reptiles and insects was the source of the superstitious gratitude of this people, we see no reason for the exclusion of any of the species from the honours of embalming. It is also stated that, on opening a mummy, in all respects resembling others, the author was 'surprized to find, instead of an Ibis, the bones of a small quadruped. It was manifest, from their number, that several individuals had been embalmed together; for we took out six entire heads, besides others which were broken. As to the different parts of the body, scarcely could we save some feet, and fragments of the tail: but we procured nearly all the parts of the skeleton. The animal proves to have been a shrew-mouse, of a much larger size than the European, and still unknown to naturalists.' For a particular description and figure of this singular quadruped, we refer to the text and plates, and shall now pass to our traveller's account of the deserts; which somewhat differs from those of other writers:

'The idea which we commonly entertain of the uninhabitable countries of the earth, of the sandy and desert places of Africa and Asia,—the idea which I myself entertained, before my arrival in Egypt, and to which the most celebrated writers have given credit and circulation,—is certainly much exaggerated, and even false. The mention of a desert immediately suggests a sea of sand, nearly as moveable as the waters of the ocean, a parched and shifting soil, incapable of vegetation, or of affording existence to any living creature. This portion of the globe, fired by the rays of a scorching sun, destitute of rain and every particle of moisture, we consider as condemned by the Almighty to eternal sterility. The Arab and his camel tread with reluctance this inhospitable land, and cannot traverse it without the risk of perishing by hunger or thirst, or of being buried under mountains of sand, which the wind forms, displaces, and moves about at pleasure.

'It is certainly true that the wind gradually conveys, from the interior of Africa into Egypt, a fine and subtle sand; and that this sand, scattered over the whole of Lybia, is displaced by the slightest agitation of the air, and accumulated at every opposition to its passage. Yet, as nature proceeds with deliberation, the most violent wind cannot, in the space of a few hours, heap such a quantity of sand on the feet of a man, as to cover one half of them; and, in the course

course of his march, the same wind which brings the sand to him impels it farther, until it is arrested by some other obstacle.

'A caravan which has perished by hunger, thirst, or a burning wind, may, we allow, be quite buried; because the bodies of many individuals presenting a permanent resistance, the sand may gradually accumulate, and, in a few days, may cover the motionless bodies: but, surely, no living animal was ever interred in the sands of Lybia; and even if such an occurrence were possible, it could easily be disengaged by the most trifling movement.

'This land, regarded as parched and desert, produces many vegetables. The poorest sand is compatible with the growth and nourishment of an infinite number of plants: even the most succulent occur in the dryest soil, and in the hottest atmosphere. Hence the different species of antelope, the porcupine, the hedge hog, the hare, the jerboa, a multitude of rats, and a great number of other animals, are here supplied with an ample and certain subsistence. Insects, too, abound in these districts; since, in all probability, not a plant exists, which is not gnawed by one or more species of these diminutive creatures. Granivorous birds, as quails and partridges, and those which feed on insects, as the whoops, swallows, midwalls, and speckled mag pies, resort thither from all quarters. The bird of prey follows them. The jackal, the hyæna, and the different species of cats and tigers, are here sufficiently multiplied. The serpent and the lizard have here also their abode; and they, as we may well suppose, have for enemies, the stork, the heron, and the curlew.

'Man, we admit, could not exist by himself in a situation so little suited to his necessities: for how could he be supported? The ground is unfit for culture; and the chace would never supply him with a sufficient quantity of food. Besides, how could he seize, in hunting, the hare and the antelope, which range over uncovered regions, and on sand that is in almost constant motion. Would he succeed better by having recourse to fire arms, and inventing snares?—No.—But he has wisely procured the ram and the ewe. To them he has added the camel, the horse, and the ass, and has thus secured his subsistence. Hence he may roam without dread over these boundless deserts; especially when he has been enabled to dig, even at very considerable intervals, those wells, whose water is essential to his existence; though he may, by means of milk, dispense with it for many days.'

M. Olivier imputes the ophthalmia, which may be said to be endemial to Egypt, to the natron with which the atmosphere is so liberally impregnated. This salt, acting on the delicate organ of vision, first produces itching, then a sensation of pain, and, lastly, an obstinate inflammation, which terminates in the loss of sight. It is remarkable, however, that the saline particles do not materially affect the lungs; since phthisis pulmonalis, so common in Greece and the islands of the Archipelago, is almost unknown in Egypt.

The

The remaining part of the present publication will not long detain us. In consequence of accidental delays in forwarding the official dispatches, the author and his associate were not relieved from their doubts respecting the future prosecution of their mission, for nearly the space of two years. When they had returned from the plain of the Mummies, and were on the eve of proceeding to the borders of the Red Sea, they were recalled to Constantinople by the Envoy extraordinary of the Republic, resident at the Porte. The Minister of the Foreign Department at the same time intimated that they were to be allowed an interpreter, and the necessary funds for continuing their journey into Persia. Accordingly, they returned to Alexandria, and, on their passage to Constantinople, touched at Rhodes, Lero, and Nagara.

As they were preparing to move with the first caravan for Diarbekir, they were urged by the Turkish government to repair to Santorino, and to point out the puzzolana which they had discovered there, and which was wanted for the construction of a dock at Constantinople. This service they seem to have performed with diligence; though the promises of munificent reward, held out by their employers, were never realized. At length, they set sail for the coast of Syria, and landed at Barut.

The situation and the political fate of Tyre give rise to moral reflexions, which are followed by some interesting and curious remarks on the Tyrian purple.

The fortunes of Achmet Dgezar, pacha of Acre, are also related with singular effect: but the instances of his deliberate ferocity are too shocking and horrible to find a place among our extracts. After having patiently recounted enormities at which nature shudders, the author thus proceeds:

'But, as in this world, a little good always accompanies a great evil, Dgezar,—like a torrent which deposits in one country a small portion of the earth, which it has dragged from another,—or like a volcano, which, after it has desolated a whole province, leaves on its surface some fertilizing lavas,—Dgezar, I say, either from instinct, or pride, or even perhaps from views of interest, sometimes pours a little balm into the wounds which he has inflicted; he sends a morsel of bread to the man whom he has reduced to beggary, and offers a new husband to the woman whose favourite spouse he has just butchered.

'Dgezar's stature is tall, his muscles are strongly marked, his figure is regular and rather handsome, his complexion is pale yet animated, his air is wild, and his eye is sparkling. He is brave, daring, indefatigable, temperate, irascible, vindictive, impetuous, and sometimes a dissembler. Expert in all bodily exercises, he remains invariably attached to the education which he received among the Mamelukes. He is equally dexterous in the use of the sabre and of the

musket. He mounts a dromedary and breaks a fiery horse with as much address as agility. Prompt to decide in the most difficult and the most perilous moments, he has almost always owed his success to his courage, to his audacity, and above all, to the rapidity with which he executes his plans of attack and defence. To the most extensive views, he unites a spirit of detail which surprizes the most crafty. He is fond of speaking; and, in a protracted conversation, he has been known to pass from the most interesting topics to the most trifling minutiæ, from the most serious subjects to the most refined pleasantry, and to shade the gradations of his discourse with a distinctness, a precision, and a neatness, which prove that every thing is arranged in his head with admirable order.

'At nearly the same instant, he will issue his directions relative to the administration of his province, superintend the construction of a fortress, or of public edifices, watch the building of a vessel, sketch the plan of a campaign, cultivate flowers, prescribe the dress of his females, or design a pattern of embroidery.

'Simple in his manners, he is sometimes affable and familiar with the inhabitants of Acre. Apparently charitable and compassionate, he ministers in person to the poor, the medicines which he believes to be suited to their distempers. He bids the afflicted man, who presents himself to him with confidence, sit down beside him, comforts him with soothing discourse, and feeds him with his own hand. He keeps always in his palace enormous kettles full of rice, for the aged and the indigent. He likewise causes money to be distributed among them every week, with the greatest regularity. Yet Dgezar is enamoured of gold. Ingenious in detecting those who possess it, nobody has practised more unlawful means to procure it. Like all powerful men, he loves flattery; and, like all who are destitute of instruction, he cannot discriminate abject adulation from merited praise. Whatever be the incense which is offered to him, he always receives it with complacency. This weakness in his character is so well known, and so uniform, that it is invariably kept in view by those who are solicitous of his good graces.

'Dgezar, who sports with every thing that is sacred on earth, who recognizes no law but his caprice, no guide but his passions, no restraint but impotence of action, is nevertheless subject to every religious prejudice, and to every popular error. He obeys alike most of the precepts of the catholic religion and those of islamism; he evokes the dead, practices magic, and consults the stars. Monks and dervises, priests and imans, astrologers and sorcerers, physicians and quacks, are received by him with marked distinction, and alternately consulted in the most simple operations, as in the most difficult circumstances: but it is probable that this cunning man thus means to impose on a vile, ignorant, and superstitious populace. He even caused it to be reported that he was a sorcerer; and that he could, by means of the good and bad genii with whom he corresponds, discover every plot that was hatched against him, destroy all his enemies, and easily accomplish all his enterprizes. It is not only in Syria and on Mount Lebanon that Dgezar is believed to be a sorcerer. There are not, perhaps, ten individuals at Damascus,

Aleppo, or Bagdad, who have information enough to presume to doubt it.

'Such is the pacha who now governs the southern and western part of Syria. It is obvious that nature has cast him in an extraordinary mould. A regular education, and the counsels of a wise instructor, would perhaps have formed him into a great man: but unfortunate circumstances have made him a villain, a tyrant, a new Phalaris.'

It may perhaps gratify the curiosity of our readers to be informed, that this striking compound of wickedness and talent has breathed his last since M. OLIVIER's pages issued from the press.

From the site of Tyre, the travellers returned to Barut, and prosecuted their route along the coast of Syria to Aleppo, whence they proceeded through Mesopotamia, by Orfa, Merdin, Nisibis, Mossul, &c. to Bagdad. This is by far the least attractive part of the present performance; the line of journey being in itself unpromising, and deriving little additional embellishment from either the philosophy or the fancy of the writer. We except, however, from this criticism, the portrait of the Chinganese Arabs, and the circumstantial account of Bagdad and its environs.

The Chinganese form a peculiar Syrian tribe, whose religious rites differ from those of the other Arabs. Like the Mussulmans, they submit to circumcision, and attend on the service of the mosque: but they have no light in their houses after sun-set. They are artful, thievish, and erratic; sometimes addicted to the labours of agriculture, but more frequently to offices of foul drudgery, to killing jackals and hyænas, to magic and divination. In their language and manners, they seem not to differ from the European *gypsies*.

For a great variety of particulars relative to Bagdad, the adjacent country, and Mesopotamia in general, we would advise the curious to have recourse to the original.

The Atlas belonging to this *Livraison* contains (besides the Turkish burying ground mentioned in the preceding volume) 1. A map of Lower Egypt, from the sea to Fayum, constructed according to the author's observations, and those published by the Generals *Reynier* and *Andréossy*. 2. A chart of the coast of Egypt, from Marabou to the Road of Aboukir. 3. A view of the Port of Lero, an island of the Egean Sea, with the town and castle. 4. A view of the Port of Partheni, and of a part of the island of Archangel. 5. A map of Syria, Mesopotamia, and part of Persia, constructed according to the author's observations, and those published by *Niebuhr* and *Beauchamp*. 6. A plan of Sidon, exhibiting the vestiges of the antient Port. 7. A view of Sour, formerly Tyre. 8. An Egyptian dance

dance on the western bank of the Nile. 9. Women of Cairo and Aleppo, in full dress. 10. Women of Bagdad *en négligé*, and also in full dress;—and six plates illustrative of various objects of natural history.

From the artless tenor of M. OLIVIER's narratives, and the quantity of accurate and specific information which they usually exhibit, we feel some degree of impatience for the third and last part of his work; which will include his observations on Persia, and on the manners and customs of the Arabs.

Muir.

ART. X. M. DEGERANDO's *Comparative History of the Systems of Philosophy, relative to the Principles of Human Knowlege.*

[*Article concluded from the Appendix to Vol.* xliv. *p.* 525.]

THE second volume of this publication introduces to our notice the metaphysicians of modern days; and in the 13th chapter is given an exposition of the Cartesian system, of its history, of its defects, and of the reformation which it introduced into the prevailing philosophy of the times. During the last century, when a particular hypothesis of *Descartes* was controverted and overturned, the errors of that philosopher were too harshly treated; and as with discussions, even purely abstract, the passions of men cannot be prevented from mingling and interfering, he was unjustly degraded from that rank which he ought to hold, and to which time and reflection must inevitably restore him. Yet it is not to be denied that philosophy received more benefit from the spirit, style, and peculiar cast of his opinions, than from their truth and solidity. Bacon was too calm, too sedate, too just and dispassionate a thinker to found a sect. *Descartes* had not only disciples, but his disciples were enthusiasts; they were intrepid thinkers; and no consequence, were it but a real consequence of their system, however remote from common apprehension, or revolting to common sense, arrested them in the march of their opinions and deductions. These *intrepid thinkers* are enumerated by M. DEGERANDO; and he adds a summary and critical view of their peculiar opinions. He gives the character of *Malebranche*, *Pascal*, *Arnaud*, and *Spinosa*. *Malebranche*, he observes, first pointed out the error of the schoolmen, in giving to terms merely logical, and designed only for classification, an absolute and metaphysical value. Of *Spinosa*, whose name is now scarcely heard among us, except for the purpose of pointing an invective or of deterring from speculation, he says:

'Spinosa made some conquests among the most intrepid thinkers: but he could never form a sect. In vain *Geulim* attempted to attach his

his destinies to those of the Cartesian Philosophy; and in vain *Boulainvilliers*, under favour of a disguise, essayed to give a popular form to his doctrine. Sagacious minds inquired, what could be the use of such a mass of speculations; and prudent men, in viewing consequences directly revolting from common sense, found a sufficient refutation of his system. The friends of morality shuddered at the dreadful results to which it seemed to lead; and the Cartesians refused to acknowlege a doctrine, of which the parentage was so unfavourable to them. They eagerly refuted *Spinosa*, when he was dead; and they neglected his book as coin that had no currency: but the greater number rejected him from the impossibility of understanding him.'

The fourteenth chapter treats of *Leibnitz* and *Wolf*; of spiritual automatism; of the principles of *contradiction*; and of the *sufficient reason*.

Leibnitz appears to stand deservedly high in M. DEGERANDO's estimation, and he pronounces his eulogy; which, however ably performed, can be agreeable only to those who are acquainted with *Leibnitz*'s character, and in no degree useful to others who have still to learn what that philosopher did and thought. The author's statement, however, of *Leibnitz*'s opinions concerning mind, its operations, &c. and concerning innate ideas, language, &c. is more acceptable. With respect to language, a passage highly interesting is given from the second volume of his works. In explaining *Leibnitz*'s sentiments respecting the foundation and reality of experimental truths, M. DEGERANDO is properly aware of an inference that may be drawn from such opinions. 'What then,' he says, 'are the consequences to which *Leibnitz* ought to have been conducted, relatively to the grand question of the reality of human knowlege? Perceiving without only a connection of phænomena, discovering there no primitive truths, and accustomed to search in internal activity for the germ of all notions, could he avoid being inclosed within a sort of idealism?' The author then enters more particularly into the discussion of the question, and shews how the idealism of this philosopher is restrained and limited. He next enters into the consideration of his *pre-established harmony*, and ingeniously accounts for many of his singular doctrines, from his geometrical taste and acquirements.

'If he places in the bosom of each monad the principle of these different developements, is it not by assigning to them the property of number, which includes within itself the principle of its own transformations? If he bestows on each monad the privilege of representing the universe, by the sole effect of the relations operating within itself, and without the concurrence of any reciprocal influence, is it not by lending them that property of any quantity whatever, by

virtue of which it entertains a necessary correlation with all possible quantities,—correlation, which is sufficient to make the latter known by the former? Does not his pre-established harmony nearly answer to that assemblage of formulas which geometers previously prepare for hypotheses yet unknown? In fine, is not the entire system a sensible image of mathematical theories, which found all the modifications of quantity on the primitive unity?'

Next succeeds the consideration of *Wolf*'s opinions and system; and here are presented to us, neatly, and in a small compass, the plan of his philosophy, and its errors. Few philosophers have been so laborious as *Wolf*: his exertions are truly German: yet with great accuracy he examined the writings of the antient scholastics, and judiciously brought forwards many excellent notions which they involved. The present author acutely observes that *Wolf* was occupied rather in supplying the deficiencies of *Leibnitz*'s system, than in adding what was necessary in order to be faithful to nature and truth.

Chapter 15. relates to the school formed by *Leibnitz* and *Wolf*; in which the author discusses the benefit conferred on science by these two philosophers, and points out the connection of their systems with that of *Kant*. Here we meet a passage in which the cast and fashion of French minds is happily depicted:

'The doctrine of *Leibnitz* and *Wolf* had too little relation with the dispositions and habits of our nation, and with the circumstances in which it was placed, to obtain among us any credit and distinction. The apparatus with which it was surrounded, the concatenation which it presented, the long and fatiguing study which it exacted, and the extreme distance which it placed between principles and their results, little suited minds which are hasty, impatient to enjoy, fond of simple forms and rapid views, and, above all, accustomed to variety. The system of *Descartes* prevailed in our schools: it satisfied the wants of positive minds; and those, whom a severe analogy had led to perceive the void, found themselves enslaved to a negative and distrustful disposition, directly contrary to that which systematic combinations exacted. Besides, the progress of literature had with us preceded philosophical analysis; while in Germany, it had followed it: thence arose a sort of disgust for abstract speculations; thence an inclination towards the *bel esprit* which estranged us from grave and serious meditations; and national prejudices, with the diversity of idioms and of religious opinions, completed the erection of a barrier which there was too little inducement to transgress.'

The 16th. chapter introduces the reader to matter most difficult and intricate; to *Kant*, and his school; to his *criticism*, or proof of the legitimacy of knowlege: to the forms and laws of the intellectual faculties. It is here that we are principally indebted to the industry, the patience, and the discernment of M. Degerando; for the philosophy of *Kant* is not

easily comprehended, being studiously complex and intricate; yet has our author tolerably succeeded in making us acquainted with it, though without exciting any sentiments of admiration for the system, or conveying much instruction to our minds. Frequently were we compelled to exclaim with M. DEGERANDO: '*Mais ce n'est pas tout de dresser des tables, d'imposer des noms, de distinguer, de classer des idées.*'

The succeeding passage contains the character of *Kant*'s mind, and shrewdly assigns the cause of the progress of his philosophy:

'The professor of Konigsberg united in himself most of the qualities necessary to the authors of grand philosophical revolutions: that comprehensive view which empowers us to assemble and to arrange a great number of truths; the art of creating new points of view in the midst even of common ideas; that talent of analysis, which conducts to the most subtile distinctions; that force of combination which founds systems; that boldness which proposes unexpected questions; that address which avoids great difficulties; that regularity which delights in classifications; that severity which commands the respect and the confidence of men; the habits of a mind familiarized with the depths of every kind of knowlege; and that genius, as it were, *Encyclopedean*, which, in an enlightened age, is necessary to give laws to the parent science, whence all others are to be derived.

'There was, moreover, either in the doctrine of *Kant* or in the forms that enveloped it, a crowd of circumstances adapted to satisfy the wants of the human mind, or to flatter its weaknesses; which were particularly in harmony with the spirit of the times, and the dispositions of his countrymen. It *satisfied the wants of the human mind*, by inviting reason to examine itself with new care, to observe nature more accurately, and to measure the extent of its real force; by making plain the necessity of giving to our knowlege a more sure foundation, and to experience more definite laws; by revealing the secret of several antient illusions; by presenting the example of methodical analyses, and of connected classifications: in a word, by exciting the hope of the approach of a golden age of philosophy, and of an epoch of peace among all sects. It also *flattered*, still more, *the weaknesses of the human mind:* curiosity was excited, believing that routes hitherto untraversed were opened to its view: the love of mystery found a secret charm in the very obscurity with which the doctrine was surrounded: those difficult proofs, that long and sensible initiation, had secret and stimulating charms for the intrepid thinkers; contemplative minds stopped delighted before the ideal types of pure reason; enthusiasm was nourished by a morality in its essence Platonic, which gave laws to itself: the love of singularity applauded the neology; vanity was gratified with the idea of being transported by *criticism* into a sect privileged among human minds; and of being invested by it with legislative power, or with supreme censorship in philosophy: while the more ordinary minds, perceiving themselves called to such high functions, were snatched from the

painful sentiment of their own mediocrity, and believed themselves transformed into as many geniuses, destined to found a new æra in the history of reason.'

It appears that the philosophy of *Kant* has its favourers, its improvers, and its adversaries. Of those who have endeavoured to *improve* his *criticism*, the ablest is *Reinhold*: who has proposed to supply its defects, and has expressed its tenets in beautiful language: but the genuine Kantians reject his emendations; and an unknown adversary, under the fictitious name of *Ænesidemus*, on the principles of the antient Cretan philosopher, has assailed him with the weapons of scepticism. The modern Ænesidemus is an artful and able adversary, and takes the ground of his scepticism on the three principles of Hume, relating to causality and the reality of knowlege.

The Kantian doctrines have created much angry controversy. Into a question purely abstract and speculative, the passions obtruded themselves as auxiliaries, but, as usual, are become principals in the warfare; and the contest has engendered more heat and irritation, than any other since the dispute between the Nominalists and the Realists. Its baneful effects are extended, according to M. Degerando, over literature, morality, and jurisprudence. This result is to be lamented; for, if we allow nothing to curiously limited definitions, nor to a subtile arrangement of uncouth words, no great merit seems due to the philosophy of *Kant*. It has irretrievably bewildered the dull, and has grievously tortured the discerning; it makes all its disciples enthusiasts, and many of them dogmatists: it has confounded the modest, and made vain the superficial; 'who from the novelty of forms have argued the novelty of things, and from the novelty of things have maintained their importance.'

M. Degerando gives an account of a new theory of *Fechte*, and of what are called the four diverging sects of *Kant*; of which, and of their parent, he thus speaks in the conclusion of the historical part of the present work:

'If we consider, in fact, that to the four principal sects are moreover joined the pure and orthodox *Kantians* and the *Mid-Kantians*, who modify the *criticism* by the antient system of *Leibnitz* and Locke; that the disputes sprung from these divisions have had the same vivacity in their expression, the same sterility in their results, and the same subtlety in their means; that all these men, in mutually reproaching each other for not understanding *Kant*, really accuse themselves of not understanding him:—if we consider that it daily exhibits itself less fixed, and less useful, whereas, on the contrary, it ought to become more so: that from it at present nothing has issued which has contributed to the progress of the sciences, or which has exerted a kindly influence on the interests of life: if, on the contrary, we fancy

fancy that we remark certain disastrous effects, neology introduced into language, barrenness into science, party spirit carried to the highest degree of intensity, morality endangered, ideas made more uncertain, and the direct course of truth changed into a labyrinth:—if we consider, I say, all these things, and oppose to them the brilliant promises of the founders of *criticism*, it may easily be conceived what an unfavourable effect this contrast ought to create in the mind of an impartial spectator. These prejudices must naturally become general: system gives us a distaste for science, as anarchy sometimes gives us a distaste for liberty: nothing injures philosophy more than abuses committed under its name; and those who directly attack it do less evil than those who cause it to be misunderstood.'

Although we are not averse to those disquisitions which are called metaphysical, yet we confess that we felt some satisfaction when we arrived at the end of the second, or the historical part of M. DEGERANDO's treatise. This satisfaction was, indeed, either caused or heightened by the hope of finding a system of metaphysics, or the philosophy of the human mind, succinctly and clearly exhibited. After the perusal of the third part, which is appropriated to this object, we find ourselves disappointed and dissatisfied: yet we acknowlege the frequent occurrence of just criticisms, and of acute and profound observations. Our chief objection lies against the want of arrangement and method, and against the author's excessive and declamatory dilatation. We perpetually required more real doctrine, and less exploded and refuted doctrine. We found that we could never get rid of the stoics, the sceptics, the dogmatists, &c. for that the author is continually recurring to what they thought, and continually refuting what they erroneously established. Glimpses are, however, afforded of M. DEGERANDO's theory, or of what he conceives to be the true theory. In forming a just and probable account of the human mind, its faculties, and its operations, all mental phænomena ought to be considered and valued; the delusive notion of simplicity,—that of explaining every thing from one principle,—must be abandoned; and we must not expect to prove every thing: there must be some base, some foundation, some axiom, from which we must set out. The axiom, indeed, must neither be complex nor arbitrary; nor must it be reducible to another axiom or principle: but somewhere we must stop, unless with the sceptics we are determined to wage the war of eternal doubts, to ask a reason why we believe this or that thing to be true, and again to ask a reason why we are reasonable and justified in *doubting*. Much that might form a system, or explanation, of the philosophy of the mind, is to be extracted from the present author's observations on the opinions of the several sectaries: but his book would

have been more instructive and entertaining, had he been less learned, or less fond of displaying his learning. He has composed with too much haste, is too diffuse, too desultory, too *French* in short, for our taste.

In chapter vii. Vol. III. the author treats of the *Desiderata* in philosophy, with regard to the principles of human knowlege. Here questions the most important present themselves; questions that have bewildered the sage, and given arms to the sceptic. What is the connection between objects and our ideas? When we speak of the laws of the material world, do we only speak of the laws of our own thoughts? What is the foundation of our belief of a material world? Are there primitive truths? These inquiries M. DEGERANDO throws very properly into the form of problems, which contain, in fact, all that the sceptical and distrustful philosophy has urged. From this division of the work, we shall give a specimen of the author's powers of argumentation:

'Some philosophers, imagining that the art of thoroughly sifting a science consists only in that of multiplying interrogations, have demanded whether, previously to the establishment of any other problem on the generation of knowlege, it be not necessary to examine a primary question, which is in their opinion fundamental: viz. *What is the nature of knowlege itself? How is it possible? What is the relation of the subject which knows with the object known?* In offering such a question, they do not suppose that our knowlege may be the term of an immediate intuition. In rendering this question anterior to all the facts of which the system of our knowlege is composed, they do not suppose that it can be resolved *à posteriori*, that is to say, by that method which ascends from effects to their causes. They demand, then, a demonstration; and, what is more, a demonstration *à priori*.

'The more the statement of such a problem is considered, the more clearly it appears that, implying a contradiction, it can only occupy the mind in a vicious circle.

'If, in fact, it be required to demonstrate *à priori* the possibility of any knowlege, whence shall be derived the data and the premises of this demonstration? What is there for the human mind beyond knowlege itself? Ignorance sole, entire, and absolute. To demonstrate, then, the possibility of knowlege, it is necessary at least to suppose that we have the knowlege of that which is possible. *To know* is a mental operation: if this operation can become the object of a synthetical demonstration, it must be to us a compound operation: but how shall we establish the operations which are mutually to combine if we do not know them? Already, then, we shall admit a first consequence; and thus we *suppose* the very question which it is necessary to resolve.

'The elements of knowlege can only be ideas or facts: but shall we admit a fact, as given, if we have observed it; and shall we take the ideas as a point of departure, if the mind does not already possess the knowlege of its ideas?

'It

'It is demanded of us, What is the relation of an object known with the subject that knows? But a relation between two things can only be the consequence and the effect of the properties of each of them. It is in these properties, then, that it is necessary to search for the principle of these relations, if we wish to demonstrate them *à priori*.—But how shall be established the properties of a known object, if we have not the knowlege of the properties of that object; and if we do not, in consequence, establish some relation between that object and the mind? Farther, the properties even of a *subject that knows* cannot be admitted, if it becomes not for itself an object which it contemplates and observes. Thus, in proportion as we advance, the difficulty is renewed, and incessantly re-produced, by the very nature of things.

'In a word, we may properly demonstrate one particular kind of knowlege by knowlege of another kind. But to demand a primary and general demonstration for every kind of knowlege is to demand a point of support, a fulcrum, in the very bosom of an absolute vacuum. To demonstrate the possibility of knowlege, it will be sufficient to see that it implies no contradiction: for there can be only two kinds of possibility:—that which is called metaphysical, and which consists only in the mutual compatibility of ideas: that which is called physical, and which consists in the compatibility of one thing with another existing thing, after the general laws of nature. This latter kind of possibility can have no relation to the question proposed, since its examination supposes the knowlege of a real thing, and of the laws of nature.

'Even, then, should we not be able to conceive by what means, or by virtue of what laws, knowlege can really be produced, it would not follow that knowlege cannot really be produced, and that we have the right to deny such a possibility. Why may it not be the effect of certain means, and of certain laws, placed beyond the limits of our conceptions?

'This problem, then, is absurd and contradictory in its nature.'

The author next shews that the inquiry is also useless.

To this discussion, succeed two chapters on speculative philosophy and dogmatism: the former of which contains many excellent observations and just inferences. It is shewn that this philosophy, which rejects all evidence, is itself without evidence; that it has a baneful influence on physics, by impeding its progress, and turning the attention of the mind to the discussion of frivolous questions; and that it has equally a baneful influence on morality, by tainting its purity, and by generating practical unconcern and indifference towards those of its rules and precepts, on which the happiness of society has been found experimentally to depend.—The character of dogmatism also is well given, together with its effects: but, as usual, with too much dilatation, and too much *French eloquence*. It is properly remarked that the extravagance of dogmatism, like all other excentricities of opinion, creates extravagance of

a nature directly opposite, and engenders pyrhonism and the wildest scepticism.

M. DEGERANDO directs his attacks against scepticism with zeal and ability: yet he acknowleges that this disposition has done much good, that it has repressed and chided headstrong tendencies towards the formation of hypotheses, and the rashness of drawing precipitate inferences. It has, indeed, had a salutary influence in rearing true philosophy; and every doubt of *Montaigne*, as the present writer admits, contained a germ of science. The art of doubting with propriety was one of the most efficacious causes that insured the progress of knowlege.

Chapter XIII. relates to a philosophical system with which, we believe, English readers are but little acquainted: we mean the *Criticism* of Kant. Of this hypothesis, M. DEGERANGO is no favourer: yet he acknowleges the merit of its author, his just distinctions, and his important observations, holding almost the rank of discoveries. The system and its defects are summarily stated. Notwithstanding all the abhorrence expressed by the Kantians against empiricism, is not the *Criticism* of *Kant* pure empiricism disguised under another name?

The last chapter treats on Experimental Philosophy, which the author considers (and, in our judgment, rightly), as the true philosophy: that, in fact, which establishes an equilibrium between our active and our passive faculties, and causes a continual intercourse to be kept up between the mind and the objects that surround it: which puts sense on an equipoise with reflection; delegating to the first the charge and duty of informing us of external phænomena, and to the last that of imparting to us what passes within us; thus preventing every forced assimilation that tends to intellectualize nature, or to materialize intelligence.

'It permits not,' says M. DEGERANDO, 'the reflection of the mind to exhaust itself by continued solitary exertions; it permits not sense to make study a series of distracted effort, and to force thought from its sanctuary: it establishes an equilibrium between the faculties of perception and of deduction, between common sense and the reasoning faculty; it assigns to each of these principles of knowlege the territory that belongs to it, and forbids that territory to be transgressed. Thus, it allows not the reasoning faculty to question the existence of primitive, immediate truths, and to arrogate such a pre-eminence as to pretend to prove the foundation of all proofs; it forbids a blind, arbitrary belief, under the name of common sense, to present to us deduced notions, to be received without examination, and, by thus forcing opinions on us, to be exonerated from the duty of proving them.'

This mixed strain of declamation and metaphysics is continued much farther: but we already touch our term and limits.

mits. Of the work we have previously stated our general opinion; and little remains for the formalities and rigour of criticism. The author has undoubtedly read much, and thought much: yet it is probable that the measure of praise for originality of reflection will in general be scantily awarded to him, on account of his desultory disquisition and declamatory diffuseness:—symptoms not usually proclaiming great mental vigour and endowment.

R.W.

ART. XI. *Augusteum, ou Description*, &c.; *i. e.* The Augusteum, or a Description of antique Monuments collected at Dresden. By GUILLAUME GOTTLIEB BECKER. Vol. I No. I. Folio. Leipzig. 1804. Imported by De Boffe. Price 2l. 10s. per Number. Proofs, 3l. Large Paper Proofs, 3l. 10s.

THE Museum at Dresden, belonging to the Elector of Saxony, contains a rich collection of antiquities, which highly merit the attention of antiquaries and artists. It is the object of M. BECKER to diffuse the knowlege of these classical treasures, by publishing a series of copper-plates containing exact representations of the most curious objects; subjoining, in letter-press of corresponding elegance, minute descriptions and explanations. In this commencement of so superb and commendable an undertaking, we are presented with 10 well executed engravings and beautiful typography. Plates 1 and 2 represent two Mummies, one of a man and the other of a woman, (these plates are finely coloured.) 3. The Sarcophagus of a Mummy, and the image of Isis with the Egyptian Tau. 4. The head of a Sphinx, and the antique figure of a lion. Plates 5, 6, and 7, the three sides of a pedestal exhibiting the seizure of the sacred tripod by Hercules, its *replacement*, and the restoration of Apollo's quiver. 8. The figure of an antient Priest. 9. A statue of Minerva. 10. Basso-relievos, in compartments; in some of which, Minerva is characterized as triumphing over the Giants.

These antiquities are so many classical texts, which M. BECKER illustrates by an ample commentary, displaying both learning and taste; and when occasionally he indulges in conjecture, it should be recollected that this is one of the prescriptive privileges of the antiquary, who must be allowed to supply the deficiency of clear evidence in the best way that his abilities admit. The account of the Mummies, which enrich the Electoral Museum, is preceded by an explanation of the several modes of embalming prevalent among the antient Egyptians; and M. BECKER gives it as his decided opinion that examples

examples are now to be found of each of the methods related by Herodotus and Diodorus Siculus, and even of the expensive process adopted in the preservation of the bodies of persons of the first quality. Though he ranks the Dresden Mummies obtained by Pietra della Valle, when in Egypt, in the second class mentioned by Herodotus, he adduces sufficient reasons for not considering them as including the remains of Egyptians. 'The traits of the (man's) countenance, the hair, the beard, the Greek inscription, the shape of the vases, the shape of the ornaments, and above all the elegance of the dress, particularly of the woman, characterize an age not very remote, and perhaps indicate them to be mummies of Greeks in the times of the Ptolemies: for the Greeks conformed themselves, as we know, to the religion and usages of the country.' The countenance of the woman displays nothing Egyptian.—The length of the Mummy of the man is 5 feet 3 inches French measure, that of the woman $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet, and the inscription on the first is conjectured to be ευψυχι, signifying "*be happy*," or "*fear not.*"

Much resemblance is observed in the symbols exhibited on the two mummies. That which is denoted by the hawk on the male figure is represented more clearly by the image of Orus, or the sun, in the female. Both hold a sacrifical vase in the right hand, and some kind of fruit in the left. The several figures are supposed not only to have a religious, but even a philosophical allusion: but as these allusions were known only to the priests, and as the priests concealed the secret, we must necessarily wander in uncertainty when we hazard an explanation.

Learned men are divided respecting that which has been denominated the Egyptian *Tau*, seen in each hand of the statue of Isis. Some suppose it to be an emblem of the force by which Typhon is enchained; others, of the activity of the sun; some, as a mere dibble or planting stick; others, as a Nilometer; some, as a key; and others, as a *Phallus*. M. Becker adopts the opinion of Zoëga, that it represents the key of the Nile, denoting, in the first instance, the complete dominion of Isis over that river, and generally his omnipotence.

The beautiful head of the Sphinx, in plate 4, introduces some remarks on the origin of this compound figure, which is supposed to be symbolical, and not allegoric. The lion is said to be the symbol both of the Nile and of Osiris; and the union of Osiris and Isis, in one combined symbol, afforded the idea of perfection.

Plates 5, 6, 7, excite a warm eulogium on the superior beauty by which the works of the Grecian artists are distinguished; and

and the execution of the basso-relievos on the three sides of this pedestal, probably intended originally for a place in a temple dedicated to Apollo, justify the apostrophe. The style of the sculpture is thought to be more antient than the æra of Phidias, and the effect is certainly beautiful. M. Becker introduces a dissertation on the tripod, which concludes rather ludicrously by informing us that 'some tripods have *four* feet.'

The plate representing the statue of Pallas may be recommended as a study to our fashionable fair; for though the Goddess displays transparent drapery, she contrives to be perfectly decent: an art which some of our ladies have to learn.

M. Becker and his coadjutors, the engravers, have exerted themselves to do justice to the Electoral Collection, and to extend its celebrity; and such a work as that before us cannot fail of contributing to both these ends. Mo-y.

Art. XII. *Le Divorce*, &c; *i.e.* The Divorce, the False Revolutionist, and the Heroism of Women; Three Novels. By M. Fie'vé'e. 12mo. 3s. Dulau and Co. London.

Of all the absurd and capricious institutions which France, under either her old or her new *Régime*, has dignified by the name of *Law*, the modern divorce claims the pre-eminence for cruelty and injustice;—at least, if Madame *Dormeuil*'s relation is to be accredited.—Mme. *Dormeuil* was a beautiful and accomplished young woman, and married to a handsome and well-informed young man. Six years of perfect happiness they enjoyed together, and perhaps Hymen thought this was as large a portion of felicity as he commonly allows; for after this period, a degree of languor and insipidity is too often found consequent on a state of uninterrupted tranquillity. Mons. *Dormeuil* required variety, and sought it in the scenes of dissipation; and hence proceeded those vicious and libertine pursuits which never fail to undermine the conjugal affection. Among other depravities, this *French Husband* had a mistress whom he wished to marry; and, as the Legislature had so easily and so conveniently devised the means of breaking old chains, and forging new, he resolved on availing himself of so desirable a privilege, and being divorced from his amiable and most affectionate wife. Madame *Dormeuil* protests against the divorce, with an obstinacy as inflexible as was that of Catherine of Arragon:—she protested against all the formalities necessary to ascertain the separation, and she insisted on keeping the name and arms of *Dormeuil*, and on being the true and lawful

lawful wife of the old Régime:—she was, however, divorced against her consent, and Monsieur married his new Love.

Of this connection, also, the inconstant husband grew tired; and he felt the same inclination to be emancipated from the second captivity, which had induced him to break the first. The matter being so easily adjusted, and the remedy for matrimonial ennui so immediately at hand, *Dormeuil* is a second time *divorced;* and with his first wife he became once more desperately in love. Her affections were never alienated from him, but stood the brunt of all his cruelties with the most persevering affection:—but the same firmness, which had directed her conduct in opposing the divorce, now supported her in refusing to renew the *ci-devant* nuptial vow; since that act would have been acknowleging *the legality of the divorce*, which she had with so much pertinacity refused to sanction. The situation of Monsieur and Madame now becomes whimsically laughable; they love each other to distraction: but they must not live together, and renew the conjugal endearments, because she *is not his wife*, and would be liable to be considered as his mistress; and it would be a breach of good morality, which would necessarily implicate her reputation on the ground of decorum, were they again to inhabit the same house. We leave the reader to Mme. *Dormeuil's* own description of the caprices of her destiny; which she details with refined and romantic sentiments of prudery, truly *French, and extremely artificial and unnatural.*

The author informs us that he suppressed the publication of the second of these novels for some time, because he dared not to print it, lest a resemblance might be discovered between the characters which he describes, and those which personally existed when it was written. We have only to observe on this *head*, that we give him credit for his prudence in taking care of his *own.* In this novel, as in most others, Love is the burden of the song; and the cabals of politics, the union of party, and the enthusiasm of patriotism, are all superseded by the irresistible control of the little deity. The lovely and innocent Adéle exchanged the horrors of a prison for the arms of an affectionate husband, and was without doubt very well pleased with the bargain: at the same time, the *revolutionist* most probably preserved himself from the guillotine by his amorous apostacy. Love was therefore the protector of both.

The third story exhibits those romantic and self-denying practices, which the writers of novels dignify with the name of heroism. Our days of romance, however, have been so long past, that we are utterly incapable of deciding on the merits

merits or demerits of these sentimental heroines; who inflict so much misery on themselves, by erecting the standard of virtue on false principles.

M. Fiévée's novels are agreeably written, in correct and elegant French; and, altogether, they are interesting and affecting.

Mrs Mo-y.

Art. XIII. *Recueil pratique*, &c.; *i. e.* A practical Manual of Rural and Domestic Economy. By Mme. Gacon-Dufour, a Member of several Agricultural and Literary Societies. 12mo. pp. 250. Paris. 1804. Imported by De Boffe. Price 3s. 6d. sewed.

This lady may not be able to say, with the countryman in the fable,

> " The little knowlege I have gain'd
> Is all from simple Nature drain'd;"

yet in the present case she disclaims having derived any assistance from books, and offers her instructions for the farmer and her receipts for the good housewife as the results of her own skill and experience. Having resided for a considerable time in Normandy, in a situation which required her to be much occupied with rural affairs, and having perhaps a taste for agricultural and domestic avocations, she devoted her mind to the improvement of every department which came under her inspection. Cows, pigs, rabbits, poultry, bees, and silk-worms, were made objects of study, as well as the manufacturing of butter, the curing of hams, and the making of conserves, pickles, dried fruits, wine, vinegar, ratafia, &c. Some of the receipts for preserves she acknowleges to have been learnt from the dames of a large convent where she was educated. The lessons and recipes here detailed may be useful in France, but many of them would not suit an Englishman's taste; for example, we should not like that onions and laurel leaves should be put into the sauce-pan whenever melted butter is prepared; nor would our workmen in the fields, at the time of harvest, be satisfied with that miserable beverage which she recommends to be prepared under the name of *Vin du Pauvre*, Wine for the Poor.

The grunting race are obliged to Madame Gacon Dufour for endeavouring to exonerate them from an aspersion which has been repeated so often as to become proverbial. She observes: 'We commonly say *as dirty as a pig*, but this is a most erroneous expression, for nothing is so clean as these animals. You never see them dunging in more than one corner of their sty, and that is always the farthest from their trough. If you

do

do not give them fresh litter, they will fall away in flesh, though they have the greatest abundance of food.' At the end of the paragraph, however, she recommends these cleanly creatures to be fed with the guts of oxen and other animals; by which she destroys the compliment at the beginning, and must shock the delicacy of the swinish race.

A section is employed in giving directions for making Flax out of the large Nettle. On this subject, it is remarked:

'Lands well managed rarely afford a crop of nettles, and a good farmer endeavours to avoid the title of *a Cultivator of Nettles and Thistles.* Nevertheless, wild spots, woods, and the banks of rivers, furnish these nettles in abundance; and rural economy calls on us to neglect none of the advantages which Nature offers. The large nettle is one of those plants on which we ought to bestow attention.'

After this exordium, the mode of gathering and of obtaining hemp from nettles is detailed; as well as its use in making aprons, towels, &c.

A paper is given on the keeping of Bees; and the advantage of honey, in curing the diseases of horses and other cattle, is stated.

Mme. G.D. seems to lament the custom which, she says, has for some time past prevailed in France, of drinking tea. She does not own that it is difficult to procure the Indian leaf since their commerce has been destroyed by the war: but she artfully recommends the *small sage* as a substitute for it, equally agreeable to the taste, and better for the health. What success she has had in preaching this doctrine in France, we know not: here, we do not expect her to make many converts.

Not having a second Mrs. Glasse in our corps, we cannot pronounce on the merit of receipts for making pickles, comfits, jellies, &c.: but, as Madame Gacon-Dufour has added to her convent education an active superintendance of her rural and domestic concerns, we take it for granted that the fruits of her experience are worth something. At any rate, we should have no objection to taste them.

Mo.y.

Art. XIV. *Essai sur l'Ivrognerie*, &c.; *i. e.* An Essay on Drunkenness. By John Le Coeur, M.D., late Surgeon Major to the fourth Regiment of Hussars. 8vo. pp. 63. Paris. 1803. Imported by De Boffe.

In this little work, the author first makes a few observations on the various substances from which exhilirating liquors have been obtained in different parts of the world; and on the different effects which climate produces, both in the disposition

position to employ them, and in the proportion of those ingredients in vegetable matters from which intoxicating qualities are derived. He then details the phænomena of drunkenness, which he divides into three stages, and points out the more immediate consequences of this direful propensity; as well as those diseases to which, sooner or later, it generally gives rise. A description of the effects produced on the intellectual faculties, and a few remarks on the means of obviating the evils and conquering the habit of intoxication, conclude the essay; in which, though it gives us a just picture of the baneful consequences of drunkenness, we have discovered nothing that furnishes it with a particular claim to attention. Yell.

ART. XV. *Code Civil*, &c.; *i. e.* The Civil Code, a Stereotype Edition, containing the Text of each Law, the transitory Laws, and an Analytical and Explanatory Table of Contents. 12mo. pp. 200. Paris. 1804. London, imported by De Boffe, Price 3s.

THE laws of the Medes and Persians might with propriety have been printed in Stereotype, had the invention been known in their time: but, after the series of changes and revolutions which the French have lately experienced, can they reckon on the immutability of their law? Since the publication of this little volume, the first article of the preliminary title of their first law requires alteration; and what other changes may succeed the destruction of the Republic, and the present imperialized state of France, who can venture to pronounce? The Civil Code seems now to be the Emperor's will; and as that is liable to alteration, it might, we should have thought, have been more convenient to have exhibited it by moveable types in the old way, than by moveable matrices in the new. This, however, is the concern of the French, and not our's; and on this occasion we have nothing more to do than to give the titles of these laws of the French Civil Code, here divided into two books.—The first of these treats, 1. Of the publication, effects, and application of the laws in general. 2. Of the enjoyment and privation of civil rights. 3. Of the acts of the civil state relative to Births, Marriages, Deaths, and the Military without the territory of France. 4. Relative to the Domicile. 5. Relative to Absentees. 6. Relative to Marriage. 7. Relative to Divorce. 8. On Paternity and Filiation. 9. On Adoption and Guardianship. 10. On the Parental Power. 11. On Minority, Guardianship, and Emancipation. 12. On coming of Age, the Interdiction, and the judiciary Council.

The

The second Book contains, 1. The law relative to the distinction of Property. 2. The right to Property. 3. Of the Usufruct, Usage, and Habitation 4. Of Servitude and territorial Service.

In the construction of these statutes, a regard seems to have been paid to the principles of natural law and equity.

Mo-y.

ART. XVI. *Mémoire sur la Culture et les Avantages du Chou-Navet*, &c.; *i. e.* A Memoir on the Culture and Advantages of the Turnip Cabbage of Lapland, the *Ruta-Baga*, or Swedish Turnip; with some general Considerations on the Culture of Fields and Meadows, on Fodder, &c. Read at a public Meeting of the Royal Academy of Sciences and Belles-Lettres of Nancy, Aug. 25, 1787. By M. SONNINI DE MANONCOUR. A new Edition, revised, corrected, and enlarged. 12mo. Paris. 1804. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1s. 6d.

WE are informed that the republication of this memoir arose from the author's having seen the *Ruta-Baga*, or Swedish Turnip, announced as a new discovery; when it is the precise plant of which he had many years ago given an account, under the title of the *Chou-Navet de Laponie*, or Lapland Turnip-Cabbage, or Cabbage-Turnip. The memoir itself commences with lamenting the neglected state of agriculture at the period of its delivery, and with recounting the disadvantages under which it laboured in France. The Turnip-Cabbage of Lapland, *Brassica oleracea*, *Napo Brassica* Lin. called *Kolrube* by the Germans, and *Kalrot* by the Swedes, is recommended as affording an abundance of food for cattle; as well as for the qualities which it is known to possess, of resisting severe cold better than the common turnip, and of vegetating under the snow. M. S. DE M. enumerates instances of gross ignorance betrayed by French agriculturists respecting this root, which it may be useful for him to correct: but English farmers do not require the information which this little tract contains, and can reap no benefit from its lessons. The testimony of Mr. Arthur Young is frequently and pompously adduced.

D.o

*** We have received the Fifth delivery of the *Mémoires de l'Institut National*, in 3 vols. 4to., and have prepared a report of several of the papers: but the manuscript was not ready for the press in time for insertion in this Appendix.

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